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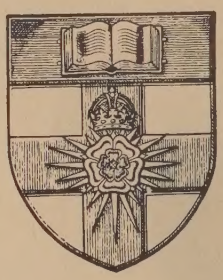
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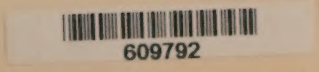
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FROM

COMMISSIONERS, INSPECTORS,

AND OTHERS:

FORTY-SEVEN VOLUMES.

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SECONDARY EDUCATION—*continued.*

[c. 7862-iv.] Memoranda and Answers to Questions. Vol. V. p. 1

ROYAL COMMISSION ON SECONDARY EDUCATION.

VOL. V.

MEMORANDA

AND

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS.

Presented to Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS.

Page

Memoranda by Royal Commissioners:—

On the Age of Entrance into the Universities, by the Hon. and Rev. E. Lyttelton, M.A. - - - - - 7

On the Financial Resources available for Secondary Education, by Mr. H. Hobhouse, M.P. - - - - - 11

On the Contributions of Private School Teachers to the Improvement of Educational Methods, by Mr. R. Wormell, D.Sc. - - - - - - - - 14

On Pensions and Provident Funds for Teachers, by Mr. R. Wormell, D.Sc.; the Hon. and Rev. E. Lyttelton, M.A.; Mr. J. H. Yoxall, M.P., and Mrs. Bryant, D.Sc. - - 16

On the Various Methods of securing Representation of Teachers on the Central and Local Authorities for Secondary Education, by Mrs. Bryant and Mr. M. E. Sadler - - 20

On the Leaving Examination as conducted in the Secondary Schools of Prussia, by Mr. M. E. Sadler - - - 27

On the advantage of having the same Central and Local Authorities for Secondary and Elementary Education, by Mr. J. H. Yoxall, M.P. - - - - - - 33

On the Proportion of the Population receiving a Secondary Education, and the extent to which Public Elementary Schools are used as Preparatory Schools, by Mrs. Henry Sidgwick - - - - - - - - 38

On the Welsh Intermediate Education Act, and on Proceedings thereunder, by the Hon. William N. Bruce, Secretary - 47

On the future Constitution of the Charity Commission, by Mr. F. S. Stevenson, M.P., Fourth Charity Commissioner - 54

On the History of Endowed Schools, by Mr. A. F. Leach, Assistant Charity Commissioner - - - - 57

On the Training of Teachers, by Mr. J. G. Fitch, LL.D. - 76

The Relation which should subsist between Primary and Secondary Schools, by Mr. J. G. Fitch, LL.D. - - 89

The Training of Teachers of Secondary Schools in France, by Mr. Herbert Ward, B.A., Oxon, one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, &c. - - - - - 94

The Registration and Training of Teachers in Secondary Schools in Germany, by Mr. J. J. Findlay - - - 112

Answers received from Members of the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, Durham, and Victoria, in reply to a Circular prefixed thereto:—

Messrs. R. L. Abbott, J. B. Baker, and G. N. Richardson, Oxford - - - - - - - - - 130

Oscar Browning, Esq., King's College, Cambridge - - 138

The Rev. Henry Montagu Butler, D.D., Master of Trinity College, Cambridge - - - - - - - 144

J. L. Strachan Davidson, Esq., Balliol College, Oxford - 149

Professor M. Foster, Trinity College, Cambridge - - - 153

Rev. Thomas Fowler, D.D., President of Corpus Christi College, Oxford - - - - - - 154

H. T. Gerrans, Esq., Worcester College, Oxford - - 158

Rev. T. H. Grose, Queen's College, Oxford - - 162

Miss M. E. Hargood, Cambridge - - - - 163

F. Haverfield, Esq., Christ Church, Oxford - - 165

Professor Holland, Oxford - - - - - - 169

T. F. C. Huddleston, Esq., King's College, Cambridge - 169

I 88589. Wt. 26639. A 2

Page
H. Jackson, Esq., Litt. D., Trinity College, Cambridge - 170
Rev. W. W. Jackson, D.D., Rector of Exeter College, Oxford - 172
Mrs. A. H. Johnson, late Hon. Sec. for the Association for the Education of Women in Oxford - - - - 185
E. J. Gross, Esq., Caius College, Cambridge - - - 187
Miss M. G. Kennedy, Cambridge - - - - 188
Miss A. C. Maitland, Principal of Somerville College, Oxford - 191
P. E. Matheson, Esq., New College, Oxford, and Secretary of the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board - 194
The Very Rev. The Dean of Christ Church, Oxford - - 202
The Rev. R. W. M. Pope, D.D., Censor of Non-Collegiate Students - - - - - - - - 205
G. W. Prothero, Esq., King's College, Cambridge - - 218
T. Raleigh, Esq., All Souls College, Oxford - - - 220
Principal Robertson, Bishop Hatfield's Hall, Durham - - 222
Miss A. M. A. H. Rogers, Tutor in Classics to the Association for the Education of Women in Oxford - - - - 222
Rev. E. F. Sampson, Christ Church, Oxford - - - 224
A. Sidgwick, Esq., Corpus Christi College, Oxford - - 231
Professor H. Sidgwick, Trinity College, Cambridge - - 243
Rev. T. B. Strong, Christ Church, Oxford - - - 248
Principal A. W. Ward and Professor Wilkins, Owens College, Manchester - - - - - - - 252
The President of Magdalen College, Oxford - - - 254
J. Wells, Esq., Wadham College, Oxford - - - 258
Miss Wilson, Victoria University - - - - 260
On the Oxford University Local Examinations' Delegacy, by Mr. H. T. Gerrans, M.A., Secretary - - - - - - 263
On the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate, by Mr. J. N. Keynes, Secretary - - - - 268
On the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board, by Messrs. E. J. Gross, and P. E. Matheson, Secretaries - - 277
On the Relations between University Extension Teaching and Secondary Education—
Extracts from Memoranda from:
(1.) The Oxford University Extension Delagacy - - 289
(2.) University of Cambridge Local Examinations and Lectures Syndicate - - - - - - 296
(3.) The Council of London Society for the Extension of University Teaching - - - - 300
(4.) The Principal of the University Extension College, Reading - - - - - 302
(5.) The Honorary Secretary of the Technical and University Extension College, Exeter - - - - 304
Headmaster's Conference' Scheme for Organisation of Secondary Education - - - - - - - - 306
The Incorporated Association of Headmasters in Public Secondary Schools - - - - - - - - - 315
Views of the National Union of Teachers concerning the Organisation of Secondary Education in England - - - 322
The Headmasters of Preparatory Schools' Association - - 330
The Private Schools' Association - - - - 334
The Boys' Public Day School Company - - - 337
Memorandum from the Church Schools Company, Limited - 339
Extract from a Letter from the Association of School Boards (England and Wales) - - - - - - - 340
Association of Technical Institutions - - - - 342
The Secondary Education Council of the Congregational Union of England and Wales - - - - - 344
The Anthropometric Effects of Gymnastics at Haileybury College, by C. Hawkins, Esq., M.A. - - - - - 345
The Medical Inspection of, and Physical Inspection in Secondary Schools, by Charles Roberts, Esq., F.R.C.S. - - - 352

Page

The Medical Inspection of Secondary Schools for Girls, by Miss Julia Cock, M.D. - - - - - - - 375

Memorandum on the Education of Working Girls, and a Report on the Acland School Club, by Miss Collett - - - 380

Memorandum, furnished by the Local Government Board, on the Sanitary Inspection of Private Schools - - - - 387

Letter from the Commissioners - - - - - - 389

Answers received from various persons to a Circular from the Commissioners prefixed thereto:— 390

From Mr. J. Bidgood, Higher Grade Board School, Newcastle-on-Tyne - - - - - - - - 393
,, Miss Broad, Bournemouth - - - - - 398
,, Miss Buss (the late) North London Collegiate School for Girls - - - - - - - - 398
,, The Rev. Canon E. Daniel, M.A. - - - - 402
,, The Rev. Canon Moore Ede - - - - - 405
,, Professor S. S. Laurie, Edinburgh - - - 407
,, Miss Lawrence - - - - - - 412
,, Mr. James Scotson, Central Higher Grade Board School, Manchester - - - - - - 421
,, The Right Rev. The Lord Bishop of Durham - - 426
,, Mr. J. G. Fitch, LL.D. - - - - - 427
,, Mr. J. Stewart - - - - - - 433
,, Miss A. Beatrice Anderton, B.A. - - - 435
,, Miss E. E. M. Creak - - - - - 441
,, Mr. J. G. Kerr - - - - - - 447
,, The Rev. M. G. Glazebrook - - - - 450
,, Mr. H. Courthorpe Bowen - - - - 459
,, Mr. E. Lloyd Jones - - - - - - 465
,, Professor James Sully - - - - - 472
,, Mr. Michael T. Sadler, M.D. - - - - 476
,, Mr. C. T. D. Acland - - - - - 478
,, Mr. C. G. Ellaby, M.A. - - - - - 484
,, The Yorkshire Ladies' Council of Education - - 491

Memorial presented on behalf of Trades and Labour Councils, Co-operative Societies, &c. - - - - - - 494

Memorial by the Working Men Managers of the Nottingham School Board's Evening Continuation Schools to Members of Parliament - - - - - - - 499

Memorial of 17 Private School Teachers - - - 501

Memorial from the Trustees of the Devon County School - 503

Note on the "Dick" Bequest - - - - - 506

Form prepared for use of Assistant Commissioners of the Charity Commission for the purpose of the Inspection of Endowments for which Schemes have been made under the Endowed Schools' Acts - - - - - - - - 513

Answers received from the British Colonies to a Circular of the Commissioners prefixed thereto - - - - - 517

CANADA:—

Ontario:—

(1.) Replies received from Mr. John Seath, High School Inspector for Ontario - - - - - 520
(2.) Replies received from Mr. J. E. Bryant, M.A. - - 526
(3.) Replies received from Mr. A. H. Morrison, late English Master, Brantford Collegiate Institute - 532
(4.) Replies received from Mr. George Monro Grant, M.A., LL.D., Principal of the University of Queen's College, Kingston - - - - - 535

Page

AUSTRALIA:—

South Australia:—

(1.) Replies received from the Education Office, Adelaide 537

(2.) Replies received from Mr. T. L. Bonython, Chairman of the Adelaide School Board - - - 538

(3.) Replies received from Mr. Wm. G. Torr, M.A., LL.D., Way College, Adelaide - - - - 540

Western Australia:—

Replies received from the Minister of Education, Perth - 541

Queensland:—

(1.) Replies received from the Department of Public Instruction, Queensland - - - - 542

(2.) Replies received from Mr. Charles H. Hodges, Headmaster of the Townsville Grammar School, Queensland - - - - - - - 543

New South Wales:—

Replies received from the Department of Public Instruction, New South Wales - - - - 544

Victoria:—

(1.) Replies received from the Education Department, Melbourne - - - - - 548

(2.) Replies received from J. Reford Carr, M.A., LL.B., Headmaster of the Methodist Ladies' College, Hawthorne, Melbourne - - - - 552

(3.) Replies received from Rev. Ambrose J. Wilson, D.D., late Headmaster of the Church of England Grammar School, Melbourne - - - - 553

(4.) Replies received from Mr. Thomas Palmer, M.A., LL.B., Headmaster of the University High School, Melbourne - - - - - 558

NEW ZEALAND:—

Replies received from the Department of Education, New Zealand - - - - - - 560

TASMANIA:—

Replies received from the Director of Education, Hobart - 562

Answers received from the United States of America and Foreign Countries to a Circular prefixed thereto:—

ILLINOIS:—

Replies received from Mr. Henry H. Belfield, Director of the Chicago Manual Training School - - - 564

IOWA:—

Replies received from Mr. James Simmons, Professor of Philosophy and Pedagogy in Iowa College, Grinnell - 566

MARYLAND:—

Replies received from Mr. D. C. Gilman, President of John Hopkins University, Baltimore - - - - 568

MASSACHUSETTS:—

(1.) Replies received from Mr. Charles W. Eliot, President of Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. - - 568

(2.) Replies received from Mr. John Tetlow, Headmaster of the Girls' High and Latin School, Boston, Mass. - 571

(3.) Replies received from Mrs. Quincy A. Shaw - - 572

MICHIGAN:—

(1.) Replies received from Mr. James B. Angell, President of the University of Michigan - - - 574

(2.) Replies received from Dr. B. A. Hinsdale, Ph.D., LL.D., Professor of the Science and Art of Teaching in the University of Michigan - - - - 576

Page

NEW YORK :—
(1.) Replies received from Mr. Nicholas M. Butler, Dean of Columbia College, New York City - - - 579
(2.) Replies received from Mr. F. D. Boynton, Principal of Ithaca High School, Ithaca, New York - - 580
(3.) Replies received from Mr. Amos M, Kilsegg, Editor of "School Journal," New York City. 581
(4.) Replies received from Miss Lucy M. Salmon, Professor of History, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York - 582

PENNSYLVANIA :—
Replies received from Miss M. Carey Thomas, Dean of Bryn Mawr College, Philadelphia - - - - 584
Notes on the American School System, by Miss Alice Zimmern, Gilchrist Travelling Scholar - - - - 586

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY :—
(1.) Replies received through the Foreign Office - - 590
(2.) Replies received from Dr. Th. Gomperz, Vienna - 592

BELGIUM :—
(1.) Replies received through the Foreign Office - - 595
(2.) Replies received from M. Emile Greyson - - 600

FRANCE :—
Replies received from the Minister of Public Instruction - 604

GERMAN EMPIRE :—
Bavaria :—
Replies received from the Bavarian Ministry for Foreign Affairs - - - - - 607
Hesse :—
Replies received through the Foreign Office - - 608
Prussia :—
(1.) Replies received through the Foreign Office - - 611
(2.) Replies received from Professor Friedersdorf, of Halle 612
Saxony :—
(1.) Replies received from Professor Küchenmeister, of the Schola Thomana, Leipzig - - - 613
(2.) Replies received from Dr. Theodor Vogel - - 615
(3.) Replies received from Mr. Henry M. Felkin, of Chemnitz, Saxony - - - - 617
Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach :—
Replies received from the Cultus Ministerium, Weimar - 626
Replies received from Dr. Rein, Professor of Pedagogy, Jena - - - - - - 630
Wurtemberg :—
(1.) Replies received through the Foreign Office - - 631
(2.) Replies received from Dr. J. von Diefenbach, Stuttgart 632

HOLLAND :—
Replies received from the Minister of the Interior, The Hague - - - - - 633

SPAIN :—
Memorandum on Education in Spain; received through the Foreign Office - - - - 634

SWEDEN AND NORWAY :—
(1.) Replies received from Herr Otto Salomon, Nääs, Sweden - - - - - 637
(2.) Replies received from Professor J. Mourly Vold, Professor of Philosophy at the University of Christiania 640

SWITZERLAND :—
Replies received from the Secretary of the Education Department of the Canton of Zurich - - - 644

MEMORANDA AND ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS.

MEMORANDA.

Memorandum on the Age for Entrance into the Universities by the Hon. and Revd. E. Lyttelton, M.A.

The suggestion which was made by two or three of our witnesses that the maximum age for competition in the Entrance Scholarships of the Oxford and Cambridge Colleges should be lowered from 19 to 17 or 18, deserves some notice supplementary to the brief remarks contained in the Report.

There seems at first sight some ground for supposing that such a change would allow those who now go to the University to "get out into life" earlier, and so would extend the benefits of a University training to those boys who now pass straight from the school to business at about the age of 19. It may be said at once that no one who has felt the intellectual stimulus of a residence at Oxford or Cambridge can view without concern the large number of lads who from the stress of circumstances are obliged to forego such an advantage for the humdrum routine of a clerk's work in a big town. It would be admitted on all sides that any plan which would modify this state of things in the right direction is deserving of warm advocacy.

It is necessary, however, to note what the exact proposal is. It is that boys who gain a college scholarship should be forced to begin University life at 18 or 17 instead of 19. Now at present the vast majority of these "scholars" are destined, not for business, but for the ministry, the bar, and the teaching or medical profession. What will be the effect of the proposed change on these boys?

Those of them on whom the present arrangement presses most hardly are those studying for the medical profession and the ministry; but from the latter we may except the candidates for English Church orders, who get their degrees at 22 or 23, and after a year's further study are ordained at 23 or 24. No one need be anxious to see curates beginning work a year or two years younger than at present. But in some other denominations the time of preparation for the ministry is protracted to three or four years, and, therefore, a graduate of 23 cannot enter the ministry till 26 or 27. Whether this frequently occurs I do not know. If it is necessary to separate the preparation for the ministry from the University course, then it may be admitted that there is some grievance. But it would surely be possible in many cases partly at least to combine the two.

For medical students he professional training is even more protracted, but may in all cases be combined with the University course. Allowing six years for it, a young man's entrance into the profession is inconveniently postponed if he only begins University life at 19; still more so if the preparation takes longer. Suppose it is desirable that one of the students should get a scholarship, say, in chemistry, and should begin work at 23 or 24, he must leave school at 16 or 17, and compete for a scholarship against lads of 19. This also may be admitted as an inconvenience. But there is no evidence yet forthcoming to show that it affects a large number in this way. Many leave school when they please, and do not try for a scholarship; a few are sharp enough to get one at an early age, and the residuum cannot be very numerous.

So much for two out of the four classes who at present go to the University. It will, doubtless, be admitted that for the other two the prospective barristers and schoolmasters there is little, if any, need for change. Considering that the length of the period before a barrister gets work to do is quite uncertain, it would be a pity to dislocate our arrangements in order to let him eat his dinners a year or two years sooner. No demand for a change has been heard from this quarter; and there is reason to believe that the number of prospective barristers at the Universities is diminishing. As to young schoolmasters, the effect would be that while a small minority who could afford it would go abroad to acquire a good knowledge of French and German, the majority would offer themselves for teaching posts at 21 years of age instead of 23. It is difficult to believe that Secondary Education would gain.

These considerations seem to show that in so far as boys are concerned who now gain scholarships and go to the Universities, the number who would benefit by the proposed change is inconsiderable, and it seems clear that such demand as exists must mainly have arisen in connexion with those who do not at present go, but who, it is supposed, would go if the age for the scholarships examination were reduced. Confining ourselves still to this bare proposal, let us consider how far such an effect would be produced.

Supposing the innovation were carried to the length of fixing the examinations at the age of 17, residence would continue till 20, a shorter period than this being hardly worth the upset of arrangements which any change would cause. But the first difficulty is that while some boys go into business or colonial life, or solicitorships, or farming, &c. at 19, the majority go younger, most, I should say, at 17 or 18, some few at 16. What reason is there for supposing that the parents of those boys would allow them to postpone their entrance into life till 20, merely because of the bonus of 50*l.* or, more likely, 30*l.* per annum.

The second difficulty is even more serious. Even if a scholarship offered early enough could attract these boys to an academic life, they are unfortunately just the boys who would fail in the open competition. Scores of boys are destined for these and similar occupations who would be preparing for the University if there were any likelihood of their getting a scholarship. If the age for the scholarships were lowered indefinitely, and their money

value indefinitely raised, they would still be quite useless to boys who failed to get them.

For these reasons it is difficult to anticipate any great benefit to the class under consideration, if the proposed change took the form only of lowering the age of the scholarships. But some reformers would go further, and either attract or coerce the "non-scholars" to begin residence earlier. This, of course, would require some other arrangements to be made as well as the lowering of the examination age. It is not easy to see what the exact arrangements would be, but, assuming that some are possible, it remains to estimate the probable effect. First, what are the evils to be remedied? Secondly, would this innovation help to remedy them?

It is held, I believe, that boys of 18 and 19 are too old for the trammels of school life and would be better away; that the schools would benefit by no longer being obliged to adapt their disciplinary regulations to boys little more than children as well as to youths on the verge of manhood; that the reason why they stay so late is that they are unwilling to exchange the careless athleticism of a public school for the cloistral life of intellect in store for them at the University; and that the headmasters are quite ready to assist them if the school cricket or football team is likely to be benefited.

As to the first two of these contentions it is quite certain that if a headmaster finds boys of 18 unwilling to submit to discipline or otherwise objectionable, he is not likely to put difficulties in the way of their departure; and in general, considering how important is the trust reposed in him in many ways, he may be left to relieve himself of these burdens if they are felt to be burdens. The truth is that no one conversant with school life will think seriously of the disciplinary difficulty in respect of the elder boys; the large majority of those who are going to the University are, during their last year or two, prefects, and have a far more powerful inducement to be law-abiding members of society then they ever will have again.

The question of the athleticism of public school boys is very easy to misunderstand. Broadly speaking, it may be said that in well-regulated schools at the present day athleticism is kept in check more effectually than at the Universities, or in the world at large. It should be remembered that among the school athletes there are some for whom no literary or scientific subject hitherto discovered possesses any interest whatever, and when the schools are accused of failing to kindle their enthusiasm for Greek History or the Latin Syntax or the first book of Euclid, or for some other intellectual quest, the impeachment, as regards a portion of the athletes, may be at once admitted. But while schoolmasters are trying to find the secret of intellectual stimulus, other checks to athletic fanaticism are vigorously applied. The time devoted to games is strictly curtailed, and the athletes, no matter how reluctant, are made to do their school work. I would not say that this is the case in all secondary schools, but it certainly is in a great many; and it is unquestionably true that the safeguards

which can be applied at school are wanting at the University; the system forbids them; so that while the problem is partly solved in the schools nowhere else is it solved at all.

In other respects, also, it is often forgotten that the school life is gradually adapted to big boys. They come by degrees to enjoy considerable amount of freedom, and it would be ridiculous to maintain that their reading suffers from their remaining at school. If Plato is read with them somewhat superficially, and Aristotle is postponed, this is not because they are at school, but because they are young; and precisely the same treatment would be adopted at the University if they went there at 17.

As regards, then, the non-scholars I am unable to assent to the idea that it would be for their interest to leave school earlier than at present. It should be noted, however, that, even if the opposite contentions were admitted, the number of boys affected would not be large. It would only cover the non-scholars on the classical side destined for the University. (I should roughly estimate these at not more than from 10 to 20 a year in a school of 500 boys.) For we must not forget that as things now are, the modern side boys would be more thoroughly excluded by the compulsory Greek if the age were lowered than at present; that is to say, for a clever boy of 18 to cram up sufficient Greek to pass Little Go is possible, though it is a grievous waste of time; but it would be a greater effort, and would waste more time if he had to do it at 16; unless, of course, the fragment that is now demanded were made more fragmentary still.

To sum up so far: of all the boys who would be affected by this change, it cannot be made out that any would materially gain except, perhaps, a few destined to be doctors, and a few to be Noncomformist ministers; the hopes entertained with regard to the rest are seen to be illusory, and to rest upon an incomplete estimate of the conditions of life at school and at college.

But there is a side to the question on which I have not yet touched. If it be impossible by such an innovation to substantially assist the young men, it would be easy enough to ruin the schools. Supposing the change went no further than to lower the age of scholarships from 19 to 17, and that the non-scholars stayed on at school as before. Every single difficulty connected with discipline, and the handling of a mass of boys according to the traditions of vigilance freedom, and trust, would be at once intensified.

The candid critics of the English public schools (a numerous body of men and women) are never tired of insisting on the dangers of the athletic spirit and the predominance of brute force, &c., &c. If the schoolmasters are able to prove exaggeration in these charges, it is entirely due to the presence of an intellectual element at the top of the school, containing individuals who can hold their own against the athletes and leaven the lump, and make it manifest that industry and good learning are not incompatible with manliness and good sense. It is now proposed to take away everyone of these at 17 and leave the heroes of cricket and football in undisputed possession. Space forbids an amplification of

this picture further than to say that the inevitable results would be a total abolition of all that is best in the monitorial system, viz., the government of boys by boys under a system of trust fortified and steadied by the enforcement of social law; the culminating triumph of our English public school system, and the one grand contribution to the art of education which our country has been able to make. And even if the non-scholars followed the rest and left at 17, the result would be no less deplorable. Just when a boy of the finest calibre and moral tone is beginning to show of what metal he is made he would disappear, and with him would go the strongest stimulus to virtue and self-control which exists among any boys in the world, viz., the visible proof afforded them, not by a professional body of masters, but by one of their own number, that courage and love of learning and lofty aspirations are realities as true and vivid as the pleasures of games or bodily appetite. And if, finally, it be said that this proves too much and would support a system under which boys remained at school till 22, the answer is simply that, whether it has sprung up accidentally or not, the present system works well; the limit that has been hit upon is wisely chosen, and that while boys of 17 to 19 years of age are often fitted to be leaders of others and a real help to the school authorities, the same is not true of boys of 15 to 17; and, therefore, a change which would substitute the latter for the former would deprive the country of the best thing in the whole of its educational system; a characteristic which foreigners have vainly striven to imitate, though they have for many years envied us the possession of it.

Memorandum on the Financial Resources available for Secondary Education by Mr. H. Hobhouse, M.P.

My colleagues have (in Part IV., page 313 of our Report) found themselves unable to make any definite forecast as to the sufficiency of the public resources available for Secondary Education to meet the demands which are sure to be made on the local authorities if the system we recommend is adopted. To me, however, it seems clear that, if we throw upon these authorities a statutory duty to supply the acknowledged deficiencies in secondary schools, there will not be, at any rate in a large number of districts (including most, if not all, of the agricultural counties), sufficient funds forthcoming for this purpose without further aid from the National Exchequer.

The possible sources of funds are: (A) educational endowments; (B) the Local Taxation Act grant; (C) local rates; (D) parliamentary grants; and (E) fees.

A. By far the greater part of the educational endowments are now usefully devoted to secondary education. Of the rest some part might, no doubt, either by removal or by diversion, be utilised by the local authorities for the same object. But in view of the needs of the elementary schools, and the strongly conservative character of the local feeling attaching to charities (especially those of a parochial character), we cannot, I think, expect any large addition to the secondary education funds from the mere re-arrangement of local endowments.

B. The Local Taxation Act grant, again, though to a large extent unpledged in those counties where technical instruction is unpopular or unsuccessful, must still in most counties and county boroughs continue to be expended largely on other objects than the erection and maintenance of secondary schools and scholarships tenable at those schools, *e.g.*, on agricultural, mining, and other technical classes and institutes, on evening continuation schools, and on the instruction of primary and other teachers.

C. Considering the very small extent* to which the rating powers under the Technical Instruction Acts have hitherto been put in force, and the strong objection that at present prevails in many localities against increasing the burden of the rates, especially when they fall heavily on agricultural land, we can hardly anticipate a liberal use being made of the proposed rating power for secondary education. It is doubtful whether, even in Wales, where the feeling for education appears to be much more enthusiastic than in most parts of England, there would have been many rates levied, but for the provision in the Welsh Intermediate Act that an equivalent Treasury grant should be made to meet a halfpenny rate. And it is highly improbable that, without a similar stimulus, there would, under present circumstances, be many rates for secondary education levied in either agricultural or urban England.

D. Nor will any automatic or normal increase in the Parliamentary grants, which are at present devoted to Science and Art instruction, but which our Report proposes to make applicable to secondary education "in all its forms and branches," sufficiently provide for the local deficiencies. If (as we have recommended) any future regulation of these grants must, to a large extent, safeguard the interests of existing schools and specific branches of instruction, it will, I fear, be impossible so to re-distribute the present grants as to supply new funds for the needy localities without inflicting what would be regarded as an unjustifiable loss on their present recipients.

E. Passing to the last source of funds now available, there are, no doubt, not a few persons who think that the gaps in our secondary school system ought to be filled wholly or almost

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* *See* Table C.; Appendix, Vol. I., p. 438.

wholly at the parents' expense. Most of our witnesses, however, admitted* that new school buildings will have to be founded and equipped, and new scholarships provided, mainly out of public funds. And the balance of our evidence leant distinctly to the view that parents of the middle and lower classes, whose children did not win scholarships, would not as a rule contribute the whole cost of education even when the schools had been founded and equipped. This cost will probably at "third grade" and "second grade" schools range from 7*l.* to 12*l.* a year for tuition alone, and from 20*l.* to 30*l.* a year and upwards for boarding charges—sums beyond the means of many, and the willingness to pay of more, parents whose children ought to obtain some degree of secondary education. Considering, moreover, the very low fees (scarcely ever exceeding 2*l.* a year) charged in the excellent "higher grade elementary" schools of many large towns, which are attended among others by the children of tradesmen, clerks, and managers, it seems unlikely that the poorer farmers and shopkeepers of the country districts will be content to pay a yearly fee of 10*l.* or even 8*l.* for an education no whit better. They will probably not be prepared as a rule to pay more than 4*l.* to 6*l.* a year for tuition or from half to two-thirds of the actual cost, a proportion not dissimilar to that at present borne by many of the parents who are now educating their sons at the public endowed schools of the lower grades. The remainder of the cost will somehow or other have to be defrayed by public funds.

For these reasons, I think it can be shown that many local authorities will be unable or unwilling to satisfy within any reasonable time the statutory requirements we propose to place upon them, unless they are accompanied by an amount of assistance from the National Exchequer at least equal to that afforded to the Welsh counties, including Monmouth, since 1889. As not a few of the English counties are as needy in their local resources as some of the Welsh,† the precedent appears a fair one. And the policy of meeting a limited amount of rates by grants seems likely to be in the end more economical for the Exchequer than that of allowing the present parliamentary grants to expand indefinitely and abnormally, as they would undoubtedly tend to do if made applicable, even under new regulations, to all forms of secondary instruction.

HENRY HOBHOUSE.

I desire to express my agreement with this memorandum.

E. C. MACLURE.

GEO. J. COCKBURN.

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* *See* Report, Part III., para. 63.

† It will be seen from Table E., Appendix, Vol. I., p. 446, that two of the Welsh counties (Denbigh and Monmouth) have endowments amounting to 46*l.* and 55*l.* per 1,000 of the population, an amount exceeding that of five out of the seven English counties there included in the comparison.

Memorandum by Mr. R. Wormell, D.Sc., on the Contributions of Private School Teachers to the Improvement of Educational Methods.

See Report, Part II., page 51.

"The larger scope for experiments which they (private schools) afford has sometimes led to noteworthy improvements of method."

This was the opinion of the Schools Enquiry Commission, see pages 286 and 652. It has been asserted or admitted by our own witnesses, see questions 4867 to 4870, 9264, 9266, 9346–7.

Nearly all the great educational reformers and founders of methods have started their experiments as "private ventures," this being the only way opened to them of forcing the world to consider their message.

A very large number of examples may be found to illustrate this, the following suggest themselves at the moment:—

(1.) Comenius began in 1616 by opening a small school at Prerau, and there worked out his First Latin Course.

(2.) Basedow, in 1749, started his work with the children of Herr Von Quaalen in Holstein.

(3.) Milton's scheme was the result of his experiments in what Dr. Johnson calls his "wonder-working academy in Aldersgate Street."

(4.) Pestalozzi began by collecting 20 or 30 children in his own house at Neuhof in 1774, the children working with him with their hands in garden, field, or house while they conversed with him and learnt the passages by heart which he gave them.

(5.) Froebel's biographer (Bowen) says, "He began with his "brother Christian's two sons and the orphan sons of Christoph, "the pastor of Griesheim." "Froebel made his way to Griesheim "with funds in his pocket not much beyond the few crowns he "had received for a collection of minerals. And in a peasant's "cottage on November 13, 1816, was opened the well-known "Universal German Educational Institute." Froebel was a private schoolmaster for half his life.

(6.) Andrew Bell, the inventor of the "Madras System" of monitorial instruction, made his first "Experiment in Education "suggesting a system by which a school or family may teach itself "on Hindoo children collected by himself for the purpose."

(7.) Joseph Lancaster, Bell's contemporary, began teaching on his own account "under the hospitable roof of an affectionate father."

(8.) To these names we may add those of Fellenberg and Père Girard, also Swiss Educational Reformers, and the men who

first put into practice the popular suggestions for technical or commercial education. "The farm turned into a school" and "A House of Business worked as a School" are typical examples.

(9.) L'École supérieure de Commerce de Paris" was started as a private venture of Adolphe Blanqui, and the Paris Chamber of Commerce bought it in 1869.

(10.) The Public Institute of Commerce of Leipzig was started by David August Schebe, and was afterwards taken over by the Corporation of Merchants.

(11.) In the first half of the 17th century two private schoolmasters in London are said by their contemporaries to have greatly improved the teaching of little boys—namely, Thomas Farnabie and Charles Hoole.

Dr. Barnard (of U.S.A.) says Hoole was "the pioneer educator of his century."

(12.) Our own times supply many additional examples. Mr. Quick tried his natural system with a preparatory school of his own collecting.

(13.) Frances Mary Buss found her first opportunities by means of a private school.

(14.) Walter Wren, whose success as a private "coach" produced quite a sensation 30 years ago, introduced methods which are now adopted by "coaches" at the universities and public schools.

(15.) Slöjd owes its origin to private enterprise. Herr Salomon's training school for Slöjd at Nääs is carried on at the expense of himself and his uncle, and leads us to recall many private schools whose proprietors never expected to make private profit by their ventures. Both Slöjd and the Kindergarten were freely used by private schools in England before any public schools adopted them. Beata Doreck and one or two private schoolmistresses who co-operated with her established the latter.

It is safe to affirm that the only places in England where Pestalozzian plans have had anything like a fair trial have been private schools, and the trial has resulted in the abandonment of many of those plans for the improved plans of Froebel.

At the present moment the Gouin method of teaching languages is being given a free and fair trial in private schools only. But we cannot generally quote existing schools and their experiments, until they have arrived at the stage of assured success.

R. Wormell.

Memorandum on Pensions and Provident Funds for Teachers, by Mr. R. Wormell, D.Sc.; the Hon. and Rev. E. Lyttelton, M.A.; Mr. J. H. Yoxall, M.P., and Mrs. Bryant, D.Sc.

It should be the duty of governing bodies of schools to provide definitely for superannuation of head and assistant mistresses and masters.

This may be done in a variety of ways to suit the circumstances of different kinds of schools. We limit ourselves to the suggestion of four typical methods, and at the same time invite attention to certain well-marked differences between the needs of women and of men.

A.—The Incorporated Association of Headmasters, after having made extensive inquiries respecting the salaries and length of service of masters in secondary schools, devised an insurance and pension scheme applicable alike to assistant and head masters and mistresses, and entered into an agreement with the Imperial Life Office to carry out the scheme. The chief feature of this scheme is the payment of fixed annual premiums for each share, half of which is expected to be paid out of salary and half to be added by the governors, and the purchase thereby of an annuity accruing at the age of 55 and varying in amount inversely with the age of entry.

The Imperial Life Office keeps the account quite distinct from other insurance business, in a section by itself; the fund has the same privileges as to investment as the other funds of that office, and the scheme is managed for the Headmasters' Association by the Imperial Life Office at a gross charge of five per cent. on the premium income, with one-tenth share of the profits ascertained every five years.

The conditions of pensions are as follows:—

1st. Any master in a school under corporate control to be eligible for membership of the scheme.

2nd. The annual premium for a single policy or share to be 10*l.*, paid by the member, or, on his behalf, by his governing body for the time being.

3rd. Any member of the fund having served seven years in a school or schools, public or private, to be allowed to continue in the fund by keeping up his annual payments, whether he remain in a school or not.

4th. After seven years' payments, any member withdrawing from the fund to receive the whole of the contributions made on his behalf, less the five per cent. management charge and without

interest, this having been transferred to the pension fund; but in the case of a member dying at any time his representatives to receive in the same manner the whole of the contributions made on his behalf, less the management charge and without the interest.

5th. The pension age to be fixed at 55 years, and then the option of a commutation payment to be given on a subjoined scale.

6th. The net profits of the fund ascertained by the quinquennial valuation to be divided among paying members in proportion to their shares, the amount accruing to each member being added in the form of pension-value to his reversionary pension, and not to be subject to any further deduction whatever.

This scheme has also been adopted by the Headmistresses' Association. It came into action in January 1894, and about 100 policies have been taken out under it. The chief impediments to the general acceptance of the scheme are, (1) lack of funds in many schools, and (2) doubts as to the legality of applying funds of a foundation under a scheme of the Charity Commission to part payment of assistant masters' premiums. To make the plan generally effective the pension contributions should always be a part of the necessary expenditure in the school, and equally with other items be covered by the endowment or by external grants.

B.—The Cambridge University Scholastic Agency has entered into agreements with—

(1.) The Equity and Law Life Assurance Society;

(2.) The Scottish Provident Institution;

by which their committee receives definite commissions for business introduced by it. These commissions enable the committee to remit to every person taking out a policy of life or endowment assurance *five per cent.* of the annual premium.

Members of the clerical and teaching professions, including women teachers, as also persons holding office in universities, colleges, museums, and learned societies, will be allowed to participate in the advantages secured by the action of the committee, irrespective of whether such persons have had any other relations with the Scholastic Agency.

The following forms of provision for families and old age have occupied the attention of the committee:—

(1.) Whole life assurance.

(2.) Endowment assurance, *i.e.*, policy payable at a fixed age, or death, whichever occurs first.

(3.) Simple endowment, *i.e.*, policy payable at a fixed age. If death occurs previously, then (*a*) premiums are not returned; (*b*) premiums or a certain portion of them are returned without interest.

(4.) Deferred annuities.

(5.) Immediate annuities.

C.—The third scheme is suggested as specially adapted to girls' schools, particularly in view of the transfer of teachers from school to school. It is an arrangement by which the governors of a school lay by, on behalf of each teacher, such an annual sum as they may determine, and either pay to the teacher the sum that has accrued to him on retirement, or buy with it for him the corresponding pension. This might with advantage be done through a central office. From 10 to 25 per cent. of the salary fund might be suggested as the annual amount of the pension fund.

Since the rate of payment for old age pensions in the case of women is higher than in that of men, while the disabilities of age tell against them at an earlier age, and, on the other hand, since the salaries demanded by them for equivalent quantities of work are lower, the sum laid by annually on behalf of mistresses by a governing body should be larger than that of masters to a corresponding degree.

Since women retire from work for a great variety of reasons, and at very various ages, it is especially important that for them, at least, the sum saved on their behalf should be realisable at any age and after any period of service. A young woman is thus enabled readily to earn her own marriage portion, and it is obvious that any scheme to make a pension fund out of the salary fund, which takes no cognisance of retirement on marriage, must be rightly unpopular among the younger women.

D.—The fourth scheme is that recommended by the Departmental Committee appointed to consider the Superannuation of Teachers in Public Elementary Schools (presented to Parliament February 1895).

The following is a brief outline of the recommendations of the Departmental Committee:—

"Teachers certificated by Education Department divided into two classes, 'existing teachers' and 'future teachers.'"

"Obligatory upon 'future teachers' and optional to 'existing teachers' to come under the scheme, the option extending from one year only from the establishment of the scheme."

"The Teachers' Superannuation Fund, to which all teachers subject to the scheme must contribute, to be divided into four branches formed from the contributions of existing and future teachers, male and female, respectively."

"The fund to be under the management of the National Debt Commissioners as regards its custody and investment. A return, showing the state of each branch, to be presented to Parliament annually. An actuarial inquiry every seven years and report to Parliament. Tables subject to revision according to result of such inquiry'

"Teachers' contributions to be deducted by Education Department from the grant to the schools, the managers deducting the amount from the teachers' salaries."

"The retiring allowances to be paid quarterly."

"Each male teacher to contribute 3*l.* per annum and each female 2*l.*, while in service until the age of 65."

"Retirement compulsory at 65 for men and women, except in special cases allowed by the Department."

"At 65 the teacher to be entitled to an annuity purchased by his contributions according to tables approved by the Treasury."

"A teacher at 65, whose service is not less than half his possible service from date of becoming certificated, to be entitled, on retirement, to a State pension in addition to the annuity from his own contributions."

"The State pension for a 'future teacher' for each complete year of service to be 10*s.* per annum."

"The State pension for an 'existing teacher' to be for each complete year of service the following amount per annum:—

"10*s.*, with the addition of, for men 3*d.*, and for women 2*d.*, for each complete year of past service at date of establishment of scheme."

"Service after 65 not reckoned for State pension."

"Auxiliary pensions to be granted under certain conditions to teachers who become permanently incapable from physical or mental infirmity of continuing to teach efficiently."

"No auxiliary pension to be paid to a teacher who has served less than 10 years, nor to one whose service does not amount to at least half his possible service."

"The amount of auxiliary pension to be:—

"For men: 20*l.* after 10 years' service, with the addition of 1*l.* for each complete additional year's service.

"For women: 15*l.* after 10 years' service, with the addition of 13*s.* 4*d.* for each complete additional year's service.

"Provided that such pension shall not exceed the superannuation to which the teacher might have been entitled on reaching the age of 65."

"Annuity from contributions of teacher receiving auxiliary pension to be appropriated after 65 years of age to the partial payment of the pension."

RICHARD WORMELL.
E. LYTTELTON.
J. H. YOXALL.
SOPHIE BRYANT.

Memorandum by Mrs. Bryant and Mr. M. E. Sadler on the Various Methods of securing Representation of Teachers on the Central and Local Authorities for Secondary Education.

Three different views are held with regard to the representation of teachers on the central and local authorities for secondary education. It may be convenient that we should here summarise them, with references to the evidence given in the course of the Commission's enquiry.

Some of our witnesses seemed to regard the formation of a local authority for this purpose as, at best, a necessary evil. They would minimise its powers either by placing it under the control of a central authority, so constituting the latter as to include persons of practical experience in teaching and to be fairly representative of the teaching profession, or by limiting the representation of the county council and the school board upon it to one-third of its members, giving the remaining two-thirds to the universities, local educational associations and governing bodies of schools.(1) They based these opinions on the ground that public authorities, elected for another purpose, would be deficient in educational experience; that in their inexperience they might injure efficient schools already in existence; and that there was a danger of partisan action, of ill-considered changes in educational methods, and of wasteful, because ignorant, expenditure of public money. They dreaded what they would call the tyranny of self-confident ignorance, its power of checking originality, a tendency to cut schools to one pattern, the destruction of educational liberty, of variety of work, of living progress. With Mr. Thring, they feared lest the teacher, "the skilled workman, "engaged in the highest kind of skilled work, should be deli- "berately and securely put under amateurs in perpetuity."(2)

(1) See Qs. 5546, 9471, 2172.

(2) *Theory and Practice of Teaching*, p. 261 (Ed. 1889).

Others, on the contrary, held no less strongly an exactly opposite opinion. They maintained that the essential thing for educational progress is popular control. In their view, "the absolute direction should lie with the municipal authority, "no universities *ex officio*, or university college, or experts, or "any persons not representing those who provide the money, "having a right to sit on the educational committees." For the successful working of the scheme, they held it to be "essential "that the representatives of the ratepayers should have absolute "control."(3) The presence of experienced teachers or of others nominated for their special knowledge of educational matters, so far from being an advantage, would, in their judgment, be "most "damaging to the popular interest in, and enthusiasm for, educa- "tional work." Whatever the risk of failure through the neglect of experienced counsel, the local authority must be left to learn

(3) Q. 15,873-6.

its lessons for itself. "A town must learn by experience to value the "opinion of experts and their co-operation and assistance; if the "majority of the ratepayers take a foolish view, it is better to let "them work out their foolish ideas and to learn by experience, "rather than to have the representatives of the ratepayers out-"voted by experts."(1) Those who held such views as these had been impressed by the evils arising from the lack of public interest in secondary education, and had a lively sense of the dangers which may arise when schools lie outside the influence of public supervision. Contented inefficiency, obsolete methods, neglect of necessary reforms in curriculum and management, "drowsy and impotent routine," would, they argued, be best cured by measures for securing public oversight of what is essentially a public duty.

(1) Q. 15,876.

A third, more moderate, and, as we think, more reasonable view falls between these two extremes. Admitting that great evils must follow from absence of public supervision on the one hand, and from the neglect of educational experience on the other, most of those whom we have consulted advocate the combination, both on the central and local authorities, of educational and administrative experience. Taken together and combined in one authority, knowledge of educational work and skill in public administration would supplement each other, correct one another's characteristic defects, and form the most efficient instrument for guidance and control.*

If this last view, which is that taken in the foregoing Report, be regarded as lying nearest the truth, it remains to consider how the combination which it proposes can best be secured, for the educational council of the central authority, and for the local authority respectively.

The Central Authority.

It is generally agreed, and our Report recommends, that the Educational Council should consist of (1) Crown nominees, (2) persons appointed by the universities, and (3) experienced members of the teaching profession. It would appear that, in principle, there is no reason why the two latter should not be appointed by similar methods; but no one can fail to be impressed by the practical difficulties still in the way of securing that the voice of the teachers should be heard on the Educational Council as clearly as that of the universities. The latter have a corporate existence, the former are still a disparate mass. Hence it is easy to prescribe that the universities shall appoint members on the Educational Council, but there is no definite body of teachers to which we can look for a similar service. Thus for the present, until such a body has come into existence, it is necessary to rely on co-optation as proposed in the Report.

* A summary of the evidence on this point will be found in the Appendix to this Memorandum.

But to our mind co-optation is merely a temporary expedient, good until the corporate body of teachers is formed. Registration is the natural means to the formation of such a body, and we would suggest that, so soon as a register is made, one-third of the Educational Council should be appointed, or recommended to the Crown for appointment, by a vote of the registered teachers throughout the country.

The advantages of the direct election by teachers of teachers to sit on the Council are:—(1.) That in this way it could be best ascertained what persons are considered most fit and eminent from the professional point of view, other points of view being otherwise provided for; (2.) That it would relieve the other members of the Council from the difficult and somewhat invidious duty of selection; (3.) That persons thus chosen by the whole body of registered teachers would be in the most favourable position for ascertaining and expressing the common wisdom of the profession; and (4.) That this arrangement would throw on all teachers a new and educative responsibility, to the ultimate effects of which we are sanguine enough to attach great importance.

The machinery of election, would be very simple. It would be as easy to collect, by voting papers, the votes of the registered teachers as it is to collect by similar means the votes of the Convocation of the University of London for persons to be nominated to Her Majesty for appointment on the Senate. The machinery of election, it may be added, is clearly set forth in the Teachers' Registration Bills, and a similar election is conducted for professional representatives on the Medical Council.

One real difficulty there is, or rather has been, in the proposal to form a professional electorate; and much good sense, as well as good feeling, on the part of teachers may be still necessary to eliminate it. We refer to the difficulty of devising a system by which teachers in secondary and also those in elementary schools shall receive due recognition, it being obviously of great importance that neither factor of experience should be neglected or over balanced. Teachers in secondary schools have feared that, under a single register and a simple electoral system, their vote would be completely swamped by the greater number of teachers in elementary schools. Hence has arisen the suggestion, that, although there should be one register, there might be two electoral rolls, a condition introducing an element of complexity into the keeping of the register very distasteful to the administrative mind.

We believe, however, that the constitution of the register as proposed in our recommendations completely obviates this particular difficulty Problems as to the due distribution of electoral rights do not arise when the register is such as to include all teachers, wherever employed, provided their professional qualification is sufficient. An electorate based on the register which the foregoing Report recommends would not be significant of special interests in different branches of the profession, but of the best qualified

educational opinion of the whole. It would, we believe, be much better, in the interest of professional unity as well as of harmony of educational aims, to work such a register as one electoral roll than to work any other kind of register as two. Moreover, against the double electorate it may in principle be urged that it would not tend to develop in every one of the teachers' representatives on the council that catholicity of educational view and knowledge which is so much to be desired.

The Local Authority.

When we come to consider the election of teachers on the local authorities, the case presents more difficulties, but the need of securing the presence of teachers, knowing the minds of teachers and trusted by them, is even greater. The policy of decentralisation makes the local authority the true centre of activity in the system proposed by our Report. It is proposed to give to the local authority great powers in founding, grading and inspecting schools, in determining the standard of efficiency with respect to buildings, staff and curriculum, in awarding scholarships, and in administering educational grants. In the discharge of these functions each local authority will not only have to deal with administrative problems of school supply, but also to decide matters involving consideration of the choice and order of studies, the effect of methods of examination on curriculum, the training and qualification of teachers, and the internal organisation of schools; questions on which there is, at the present time, considerable activity of thought and flux of opinion. The inner life, which is the real life, of education, must be profoundly influenced by these decisions. It is not proposed that the central authority should check the local authority in the detailed administration of its work. The more necessary therefore does it become to secure, and by equally effective methods, the presence of teachers with a representative experience of schools, not only on the central, but also on the local authority.

The same arguments as for the central authority apply to show that the teachers on the local authority should be such persons as would in most cases be best secured by calling upon the registered teachers of the locality to elect them. We might even say the same arguments *à fortiori*, so important is the work of the local authority in its educational bearings, and so essential is it that the educational advisers on the authority should be in touch with the teachers in the schools and possess their confidence. In particular, we may lay stress on the expediency of so constituting the new local authorities as to secure from the outset the confidence of teachers. The tendency shown by so many of our professional witnesses to rely on the central, as against the local, authority is very significant. It will not be enough to decentralise by legislation. We must decentralise also this bent of the educational mind, and the way to do it is plain.

The teachers will soon learn to rely on the local authority if they as teachers, are invited to co-operate with it. Indeed, the advantages of this course are so clear that we venture to hope local authorities will, of their own accord, invite teachers to choose those persons who shall be co-opted as exponents of educational opinion.(1) This has already been done in the case of the London Technical Education Board.

(1) c. p. Part IV. sections 33 and 37.

On the other hand, it has been urged that no single class or interest ought to be given representation on a public authority, that it is contrary to sound principle to encourage sectional divisions or to excite the opposition which privilege provokes.(2) But this objection is, in our opinion, founded on a misconception of the purpose proposed. Representation should certainly never be given on any public authority to any special class for the protection of its own pecuniary or other interests. The proposed local authority for secondary education is, however, a body to be entrusted with the management of a very special matter of great public concern, but requiring much expert knowledge. The simple expedient would have been to elect *ad hoc*, and in that case the objection to a limited electorate of teachers might well have been made on grounds of constitutional principle. Instead of adopting the simple expedient, however, it is proposed to institute, as more effective for its end, a composite board, of which the components shall represent, not different interests, but all the special kinds of experience that bear upon the special problem. Thus it is proposed to place on the local authority representatives of the county council, of the school board, of the universities, of the teachers. Each set of members might, it is true, represent an interest; even the elected representatives might do so if they carried party predilections or questions of social class into the educational authority and made them dominant. But the exercise of common sense and right feeling may well be trusted to prevent any such result. The popularly elected representatives of both kinds would be there in order to bring to the board their knowledge of the popular will and public business, and the representatives of educational experience would be there to contribute their quota of knowledge and skill, and may no less be depended on to do this with a sound disinterestedness. Moreover, the popularly elected representatives, being responsible to the ratepayers, would rightly be in a decided majority. The insignificant voting power of a few teachers' representatives puts them practically in the position of having an effective voice, but not an effective vote. It might, of course, be provided that they should not vote at all on questions of salaries, but an honourable understanding in all such matters would be certain to exist, and probably would be deemed sufficient. We trust, therefore, that the local authorities, not attaching weight to this line of objection, will look for selection on educational grounds to those who have most knowledge of educational affairs. They might well, while retaining their power to co-opt, use it by delegating to the teachers the power to elect.

(2) Hance, 13,413-5.

An electoral roll for the administrative county would be easily formed. For other purposes the local authority would have a list of all the registered teachers in the schools under its jurisdiction. These form a natural electorate, to which, since the local authority should be in touch with the experience of the elementary schools, the registered teachers in these schools should be added. It would be premature at this moment to determine whether one or two electoral rolls would be necessary. The case is not quite parallel with that of the central council, as the business of the local authority is so much more immersed in concrete detail. One method for dividing the representation, should this seem advisable, would be to give some to the registered teachers in secondary schools alone, and some to all the registered teachers acting jointly.

It is, of course, most important that among the representative teachers there should be women, but the method of choice by election would doubtless sufficiently provide for this in an electorate of which women would form a not insignificant part.

Appendix.

We append a summary of evidence given in favour of the representation of teachers on the local authority.

Sir George Kekewich(1) would have teachers elected by teachers on the county and county borough authorities though he would exclude them from the financial business of levying rates. Mr. Sharpe(2) thought the presence of all classes of teachers desirable on the county authorities. Sir George Young(3), while giving a majority to the representative members chosen in the locality, would "add an educational element from whatever "source it can be derived." Mr. Richmond(4), speaking of the central local authority for London, would place upon it two representatives of the teachers in secondary schools. Mr. C. T. D. Acland(5), would have on the county committee elected representatives of the registered secondary teachers in the county. Mr. Lee Warner(6), thought that the county committees "ought "to be forced to have representatives of the various school-"masters' organizations in each county." Mr. Sidney Webb(7), would make the presence of teachers on the local authority "a "matter of statutory obligation and not have it left to the "voluntary choice of the board itself." Mr. Fearon(7a), who felt that there were difficulties in the election of teachers on the local authority, argued that this was a reason for creating a provincial authority on which they could be represented. Mr. Macan(8), would like to have on the County Committee of such a county as Surrey a representative of the Headmasters' Conference and of the Headmasters' Association, whether nominated by the Council or chosen by the associations, seemed to him immaterial, but he had no objection to the second plan. The Bishop of London(9) thought that "a certain representation of teachers should be added to the

(1) 11,560, and 11,631-3.
(2) 1571.
(3) 182.
(4) 508, 590.
(5) Memorandum p. 480.
(6) 4288.
(7) 2663-4.
(7a) 10,937-8.
(8) 4612-33.
(9) 3990-1, 3996-7, also 4029, 4073, 4812.

" county council, because they are able to give information that " no one else can give, and that the representation should be " prescribed by law." Dr. Percival[10], would " distinctly wish to " see teachers, both from secondary and elementary schools, " represented on the county authority, not that they should " necessarily have a preponderating influence, but that they should " be fairly represented." He added that he thought "a fourth " would be sufficient." Mr. Vardy[11], thought that " the district " authority should certainly have representatives of all the " teachers of the district." Dr. Poole[12], speaking for the Headmasters' Association, held that the provincial council should comprise nominees of the registered secondary teachers; in the Draft Scheme[13] submitted by the Headmasters' Conference it is provided that on the county or provincial educational committees " adequate representation of educational interests should be " secured." Mr. Storr[14], speaking on behalf of the Teachers' Guild, expressed the opinion that each county committee ought " to be compelled to co-opt an equal number of experts, or that " an equal number of experts ought to be placed on it by the " central authority, he did not much care which." Mr. Pinches[15], speaking on behalf of the College of Preceptors, held that the local authority ought to have teachers upon it. Mr. Bowden[16], speaking on behalf of the National Union of Teachers, urged that the teachers should have representation both on the county and the county borough authority. Mr. Brown [17], speaking on behalf of the Private Schools' Association, would have " one third of the " local educational authority elected by all the registered teachers " in the district." Dr. Bruce[18], a representative of the Association of School Boards, thought that on the local authority there should be a representative of the teachers elected by them, but questioned whether the teachers' representatives should have a vote. Professor Laurie[19], thought that on the district authorities " the secondary teachers of the county should elect at least two " members, and the elementary certificated teachers one member." Miss Anderton[20], suggested that one fourth of the district authority for secondary education should consist of actual teachers. Miss Creak[21], wrote that in her opinion the district authority should include a large proportion of representatives of the registered body of teachers in secondary schools.

(10) 15,679-80.

(11) 2004-5.

(12) 5857.

(13) 'Organization' B. 2 c.

(14) 7534, 7575.

(15) 5631-3.

(16) 8118, 8154.

(17) 9349.

(18) 6864-70.

(19) Memorandum, p. 408.

(20) Memorandum, p. 438.

(21) Memorandum, p. 445.

This remarkable consensus of opinion shows that, not only the teachers themselves, but men of wide experience of public life, whether in connexion with county councils, school boards, or the public service agree in thinking it necessary to secure the educational experience of teachers on the new local authorities for secondary education.

SOPHIE BRYANT.
M. E. SADLER.
R. WORMELL.

Memorandum by Mr. M. E. Sadler on the Leaving Examination as conducted in the Secondary Schools of Prussia.

As reference is frequently made in the course of this Report to the German *Abiturienten-Examen*, a short account of the way in which it is actually conducted may be of service to those who are unacquainted with the details of the system. For the particulars I am indebted to Dr. Emil Hausknecht, of Berlin, a teacher with wide knowledge of German secondary schools.

Plan of studies in each secondary school.

For each type of secondary school in Prussia a general plar of studies is laid down by the State. But the lines of this general plan are so wide as to give to the headmaster of each school considerable freedom in framing its curriculum. In this task he naturally takes counsel with the teachers on his staff. When the headmaster has thus, with the aid of his assistants, planned the curriculum of his school in full detail, his scheme has to be submitted to the "College" of Inspectors for their approval. Every three years the plan of studies must be reviewed by the headmaster, and again sent in for the approval of the College of Inspectors as before. If, in thus revising his curriculum, the headmaster proposes any considerable alterations, he must state at length his reasons for doing so. He is also permitted to append to his own statement a supplementary report on the points in question prepared by one of the teachers on his staff. Three written copies of this detailed plan of studies are preserved, one being in the possession of the headmaster, another in the hands of the inspector, and the third being kept for reference on the part of any assistant teacher in the school.

Triennial review of this plan.

The teachers' log-book,

There lies on the desk of each class-room in the school a log-book, in which the teacher, before leaving the room at the end of a lesson, enters a brief record of the work done in the course of it. This log-book or diary is always accessible to the headmaster and to the inspector, for whose guidance a complete picture of the course of instruction given in the class is thus preserved. The headmaster and the inspector, by the aid of this diary, are enabled to check the teacher's methods, and to assure themselves that he adheres to the course of instruction prescribed in the detailed curriculum.

and the scholars' exercise books,

Moreover, the more important exercises of the pupils, and especially the "unseens," are written, not on loose sheets of paper, but in note books, in which corrections and criticisms are also written by the teacher. The exercises and the corrections are both dated, and the note books containing them are carefully preserved for reference for one year, or, in the case of the highest class, for two years. Each pupil has a separate note book for each subject.

preserved for reference by the headmaster and inspector.

The log book and the exercise books together thus provide a continuous record of the work done by each class. They are regularly examined by the head master, and also by the inspector

when the latter visits the school. This he does without notice and at his pleasure, and almost always within the two or three months immediately preceding the leaving examination. The less efficient schools are more frequently inspected. The inspectors, it should be added, are invariably men who have had previous experience as teachers. They are usually appointed when about, or a little more than, 40 years of age. There are no women inspectors. To each inspector a group of specified schools is assigned for a short term of years. When the inspector visits a school, he examines the log books and the exercise books and listens to the teaching given in the classes. He is also permitted to put questions to the pupils and very often does so.

Methods of inspection.

The "promotion examination."

At the end of each school year there is a "promotion examination" in every class below the highest. The written part of this "promotion examination is conducted by the teachers alone, but the oral part is held in the presence of the headmaster, who may also himself question the scholars. As a matter of fact, only those boys are examined orally whose marks (either in the written examination or in the general report on the year's work) are unsatisfactory. The report on the year's work of each boy has to be sent in to the headmaster before the written examination begins. It is drawn up in simple symbols; + signifying "ripe," O "not ripe," and ? "doubtful." No great importance is attached to the promotion examination, and boys are sometimes promoted even though they have done badly in it. Promotion from class to class is not determined mechanically by the scale of marks obtained in the promotion examination, but depends on the general character of the pupil's work during the year.

The "leaving examination."

The leaving examination is confined to boys in the first class. Under ordinary circumstances, about 25 boys will enter for it in each school. Three months before the examination begins, each boy prepares a biographical sketch in which he shortly reports on his previous education from its commencement to the date of the composition. He is allowed to specify the subjects of which he is particularly fond (including any subjects not taught in schools), and those which he had special difficulty in studying. Two months before the examination, each master sends to the headmaster a paper of questions or problems in the subject on which he has given instruction. This paper contains three times as many questions as will be required in the leaving-examination. The headmaster examines the questions and either approves them as they stand or revises them after consultation with the teacher concerned. These sets of questions are then sent to the inspector, together with a long characterisation of each pupil, written by the class-master and agreed to by all the masters engaged in teaching the boy, as well as by the headmaster. This report on the character of the pupil's work is long and full, being written, partly in symbols and partly in

words, on printed schedules. At the same time, also, each master has to report of each individual pupil whether he thinks him ripe to pass the examination. On this point the opinion of the master, on which much depends, is expressed in the words "yes," "no," or "doubtful." His decision, which is based on the boy's work during the year, weighs as much as the written and oral examinations, which follow, put together. Each boy must have reached in his year's work a certain standard in eight or nine subjects, but special success in a "compensatory subject" countervails failure in one other, German excepted.

On receiving the papers of proposed questions and the reports on the individual pupils, the inspector carefully examines them and may refer the questions in any subject, with which he is not himself familiar, to one of his colleagues in the "college" of inspectors to which he belongs. Each "college" will naturally have among its members an expert in each branch of the school curriculum, but different parts of the same school are not assigned to different inspectors. On the contrary each of the schools is placed, as a whole, under the care of one inspector only for a term of years. The teachers in a particular school may thus come to know in what subjects their inspector is weak, and this may have some effect on the work of the school. It is said, however, that in practice the effect is small, care being taken not to assign a school in which the teaching of a particular subject is weak to an inspector whose knowledge of that subject happens also to be defective.

When the inspector has perused the papers of questions and the reports, he fixes the date for the oral examination. The headmaster of the school then appoints a day for the written examination, usually choosing a date which will fall from four to five weeks before that fixed by the inspector for the oral examination. The day before the written examination, the inspector sends back to the school the papers of questions, having marked on each paper one third of the questions. The questions so marked are set in the examination. The papers of questions are sent to the headmaster by the inspector in sealed envelopes, each paper under a separate cover. The questions are not printed. On the day of examination the headmaster is required to hand the envelope containing the questions, with the seal still unbroken, to the class master in the presence of the candidates. The envelope is then opened, and the marked questions are dictated to the candidates, one or more of the latter being asked to repeat them in order to prevent mistakes From two to five hours are given for each paper, allowance being made for the time taken by the dictation of the questions. The master concerned fills in a certificate showing the exact time at which the seal was broken, when the dictation began and ended, and when the worked papers were collected by him. There are five subjects in which written examinations are held, and the papers are set on consecutive days. Only one paper is

given on each day. The dates of the written examination are sometimes so arranged that a Sunday falls in the middle of the examination.

As the master thus knows beforehand the whole list of questions from which those set in the examination will be taken, it may be asked whether he does not specially prepare his pupils to pass in those particular subjects. A strict code of professional honour condemns and prevents any such unfair preparation. It is said that an ordinary teacher would rather commit suicide than thus cram up his boys beforehand to pass in the questions set by himself. His spirit would revolt against the suggestion. At the same time, some teachers are occasionally suspected of the practice. In case of such suspicion arising, the inspector pays frequent visits to the class taught by the suspected master, and closely examines the character of his daily work. He is also free to refuse any of the three sets of questions prepared by the teacher, and to substitute a paper set by himself. But the most effective check on dishonourable practice lies in the fact that any teacher suspected of violating the spirit of the examination, is scouted by his colleagues, and condemned by professional opinion. If detected in any such offence, he is branded with disgrace and dismissed without a pension.

Each set of answers worked in the examination is looked over by the master, who marks each answer 1, 2, 3, or 4 (*i.e.*, very good, good, sufficient, or insufficient). Papers receiving any one of the three highest marks are allowed to "pass." The master is required to set forth in writing the grounds of his decision in respect of each paper. Furthermore, all the teachers concerned with the class look at the papers of all the candidates, and at the biographical sketches prepared by them, in order to form an opinion about each boy. When all this is done, the masters meet and make collectively a short report as to the "ripeness" of the various candidates for passing the examination. In making this supplementary report they take into account both their own first decision and the boy's work in the written examination.

All the worked papers, together with this second report and the boys' own biographical sketches, are now sent to the inspector who, the day before his visit for the *vivâ voce* examination, looks through representative parts of the candidates' work.

On the day of the *vivâ voce* examination the inspector first presides over a meeting of the examination board, which consists of those masters to whom the headmaster has entrusted the care of the highest form during the preceding year, together with the headmaster and the inspector; the presence of the latter being required to make the board technically complete. On the board each man has one vote, the inspector having also a

casting vote on any subject on which the opinion of the board happens to be equally divided.

At this meeting of the examination board the inspector first makes general comments and criticisms on the work done in the class. Next, he criticises the papers set for the examination, with special reference to their fitness to the particular school, and to their easiness and difficulty as compared with other papers set in corresponding schools elsewhere. He then reviews the corrections made by the teachers on the boys' worked papers. Of these corrections the inspector either states his approval or suggests alterations in them. Next he turns to the marks of each candidate, and goes carefully through the record of his work. In case of any doubt he questions the teachers as to the boy's work, or looks into his exercise books for the last two years, these books being required to be at hand during the meeting. Finally, he takes a vote on each boy. According to this vote the candidate is (1) either declared "ripe" without any further *vivâ voce* examination (which is equivalent to passing with honours); or (2) admitted to the *vivâ voce* examination, in which case he is so examined only in those subjects in which he has not been marked as "sufficient" both for his year's work and in his written examination; or (3) excluded from the *viva voce* examination. A candidate so excluded is considered as having failed in the examination, and after three such failures a boy cannot be admitted to the leaving examination again.

As soon as it has been decided in the meeting of the examining board which of the candidates are to be excused from the *vivâ voce* examination, which are to be admitted (and in what subjects), and which are to be excluded, all the candidates are assembled for prayers, and are afterwards introduced to the inspector by the headmaster. The inspector then announces the names of those who have passed the examination without having to undergo *vivâ voce* questioning, and, with a few words of congratulation, excuses them from further attendance. He then tells the other candidates in what subjects they will be required to be examined *vivâ voce*, and the oral examination begins at once.

A candidate who is admitted to this *vivâ voce* examination can "pull himself up" in any subject in which he has failed to obtain the mark "sufficient" in the written examination. The master, however, may refuse to allow him thus to retrieve his failure. In case of such refusal, however, the candidate may ask to be examined *vivâ voce* in any subject in which he has been marked 1 or 2 (*i.e.* "very good" or "good"), special success compensating for failure in any subject except German and religious knowledge. If a boy's written examination work is marked higher than was his year's work, he must be examined really in order to compensate for loss of marks in respect of his comparative failure in the course of instruction given during the year. If, on the other hand, a boy does badly in the year's

work, and passes in the written examination but fails in *vivâ voce*, he is regarded as having failed in the examination.

In order to lessen the number of papers, there is no written examination in some subjects, *e.g.*, religious knowledge, history, and geography. Each boy's *vivâ voce* examination in each subject generally lasts from 20 minutes to half an hour. Every candidate must pass in all subjects, except drawing, singing, and gymnastics.

The inspector may, if he likes, examine a boy *vivâ voce* in religious knowledge, history, and geography; but in these subjects the master's report on the candidate's work during the year is generally decisive. The teaching of history in German schools is said to be good, though the results are rarely subjected to an external test in the leaving examination. As a matter of fact, however, boys in the highest class often find no small difficulty in obtaining from their teacher a satisfactory report in history and religious knowledge.

The *vivâ voce* part of the leaving examination, including the meeting of the examining board which precedes it, usually lasts one day—*e.g.*, from 8 a.m. to 6 or 7 p.m. with a short break for lunch.

At the close of the examination day, the examination board meets once more, the inspector being present. At this meeting all the other masters attend and may be asked questions by the inspector; but they have no vote or voice in the discussion. The results of the examination are announced at the end of the day, each candidate being simply told whether he has passed or failed. But the certificate, which the candidate receives afterwards, goes into very considerable detail.

When held in schools which have a nine-years' course, the leaving examination admits the successful candidate to the university, except that, in the case of the *real-gymnasium* and the *ober realschule*, it does not admit the student to academic study in classical philology, philosophy, theology, law, or medicine. When held in the *real-schule*, where the course is of six years' duration, the leaving examination confers a certificate which admits the holder to many of the professions and to the civil service.

It will be remembered that, in his report on German schools, presented to the Schools Enquiry Commission, Mr. Matthew Arnold thus summarised the rules of the leaving examination: "It is to be such as a scholar of fair ability and proper diligence "may, at the end of his school course, come to with a quiet "mind and without a painful preparatory effort, tending to "relaxation and torpor as soon as the effort is over." And he remarked on the care which is taken that "the instruction in "the highest class should not degenerate into a preparation for "the examination; that the pupil may have the requisite time "to come steadily and without over-hurrying to the fulness of "the measure of his powers and character; and that he may be

" securely and thoroughly formed, instead of being bewildered " and oppressed by a mass of information hastily heaped " together."

The Prussian *abiturienten examen* is interesting alike in respect of its methods and in the privileges which it confers. Its methods are carefully devised so as to give to the teacher a large degree of freedom in framing the curriculum of his school, and in forming a fair judgment of his pupils' abilities. But the whole examination depends on the fact that it is attached to an organised system of inspection. There seems, however, nothing to prevent this method of examination (with some modification) from being tried experimentally by one or other of our examining authorities.

M. E. SADLER.

Memorandum on the Advantage of having the same Central and Local Authorities for Secondary and Elementary Education, by J. H. Yoxall, Esq., M.P.

The public welfare seems to me to require that we should aim at establishing, as soon as may be feasible, one and the same central authority for Elementary and Secondary Education; and also that the local control of these two branches of instruction should be unified at the first opportunity that may occur. In the meantime, all that is done in the organisation of Secondary Education ought to be so done as to lead by natural and easy transitions to such unification hereafter.

This identification of educational jurisdiction is, in my judgment, urgently needed in order to obtain the following objects:—

1. Economy of management, by avoiding—
   - (*a.*) Multiplication of officials;
   - (*b.*) Duplication of functions;
   - (*c.*) Overlapping of authority;
   - (*d.*) Over-supply of schools;
   - (*e.*) Undue competition between authorities and schools.
2. Administrative efficiency, by securing—
   - (*a.*) Systematized and continuous oversight;
   - (*b.*) Accurate knowledge of interdependent requirements;
   - (*c.*) Organic connection of curricula in primary and secondary schools;
   - (*d.*) Definition of scope of various kinds of secondary schools;
   - (*e.*) Systematic adjustment of schemes of scholarships and exhibitions;
   - (*f.*) Organic relations between primary, secondary, and higher instruction.

3. Discouragement of unnecessary social prejudices arising from—

(*a.*) Separatism in administration;

(*b.*) Non-educational distinctions between schools;

(*c.*) Want of unity in the teaching profession as a whole.

There is hardly any price in the way of administrative re-adjustment or legislative reconstruction too high to pay for reforms so desirable in the public interest as these. A national system of education cannot be divided into watertight compartments without every part of it being injured. From top to bottom it should be one thing, a living organism; and administrative bonds which check free circulation from one part of it to another lessen its vitality and endanger its natural growth. For these and kindred reasons I regret that the Commission was unable to interpret its reference so widely as to propose the joint administration of primary and secondary education all round. But I recognise with pleasure that the recommendations tend largely in the direction of unifying the Central Authority. To strengthen this tendency I suggest that as the Educational Council[1] will, of course, include some person or persons experienced in the management and teaching of public elementary schools, it would properly be among the duties of the Council to advise the Minister on all purely educational questions concerning such schools, and on some administrative matters in regard to them as well. In that way co-ordination of purpose and effort would be furthered, and organic correlation of schools would be brought about within the field of central jurisdiction. Indeed, in my opinion, we need in England to have one Government department for all grades of education, with a Cabinet Minister at the head of it, assisted by a Parliamentary Secretary, the whole administrative organization being under the comprehensive survey of one Permanent Secretary. Under him would be the separate sub-departments for primary, and secondary and technical, education, each with its own assistant secretary at its head. The various branches of public instruction would thus be co-ordinated at the summit of the system. As each branch would be considered in its relations to the others, the result would be the harmonious development and interdependence of all. The Secretary of this enlarged Education Office, relieved from the burden of infinite detail which our centralized system casts upon the Secretary of the Education Department now, would be able to review the whole area of educational activity, to arrest hurtful overlapping of effort, to note and to fill up the gaps in our system of schools. At present our educational ship of State has three rudders; its course will be straighter, and its voyage speedier and safer, when it has but one helm.

[1] Rep., pt. 4, par. 4 and 5.

The effects of unification would be similarly valuable upon the narrower field and subordinate plane of local administration. Yet such unification is well nigh impracticable until we have

decentralisation also. Hence I cordially agree with the decentralising measures proposed in this report. But this policy should not stop at Secondary Education ; it should extend to elementary schools as well. The terms of the question referred to the Commission prevented us from regarding the whole of the local organisation of elementary education as falling within the scope of our inquiry. Had that not been so (and for my part I specially regret that it was so) the proposals which we make for Secondary Education might well, in my opinion, have been so expanded and adjusted as to provide for the local control of Elementary and Secondary Education jointly, as one concern. It became evident to the Commission, in particular during the consideration of the constitution of the county authority,(2) that the existence of small school boards and the non-existence of a county authority for elementary education prevented the constitution of a composite co-ordinating authority for the counties such as those proposed for London and the county boroughs. Decentralisation and unification are alike impracticable for elementary education so long as this hiatus in the system remains unstopped. Without proposing a detailed plan for filling it—a proposal for which this is not a fitting opportunity—I may be allowed to suggest that some form of county board (with subordinate district authorities, no doubt) will need to be adopted. This does not mean or necessitate a system of "universal board schools." It need mean nothing more changeful than a system of authorities, administering, over areas sufficiently large, as the penultimate superior power, under which existing management Committees and small School Boards would act as governing bodies for schools or groups of schools. The absence of some such county authority for primary education hinders not only unification but due co-ordination; for just as the larger question was regarded by the Commission as lying outside the scope of their function, so the smaller question could only be partially dealt with in the proposals for county authorities. Our recommendations, however, so far as they go, are certainly in the direction desired.

(2) Rep., pt. 4, par. 32 and 36.

It is significant to find that other Commissions on Education have been led to similar conclusions regarding a county authority. Thus the Duke of Newcastle's Commission, in 1861, recommended the establishment of county boards of education for elementary instruction.(4) The Schools Enquiry Commission in 1867 adumbrated a similar scheme for Secondary Education, stating that "a county board would do, with comparative ease, what "perhaps no other board could do at all."(2) The Technical Instruction Commissioners, in 1884, recommended the establishment of a local authority.(3) The Elementary Education Commission of 1888, though reporting at a date when county councils were non-existent, were so impressed with the advantages of fitting the local administration of elementary education into the machinery of county government, that, without expressing any opinion on the particular plan, they embodied in

(4) 4th Report, vol. 1, p. 330.

(2) Report, vol. p. 643.

(3) 2nd Report, vol. 1, p. 538.

their report a memorandum drawn up by Sir Francis Sandford as to "the mode of bringing education within the scope of the "Local Government Bill," (4) and one of their most important witnesses, speaking from long official experience, advocated a scheme of county boards for the supervision of elementary education.(5)

(4) Report, vol. 1, pp. 204–7 and 223.

(5) Mr. P. Cumin, Q. 59,425–30 and 59,543.

The cumulative effect of this succession of recommendations is considerable. They all point towards decentralization on county lines; they are supported by what is, perhaps, one of the strongest tendencies in the public life of our time; and the acceptance of such proposals is rendered easier by the growing power and dignity of county local government under the Act of 1888. It is needless to point out at length how irresistibly all this carries the mind towards decentralizing the administration of primary schools and entrusting it in county areas to supervising boards. From that to the joint local rule of both degrees of education would be but a step. The pity of it is that the absence of the preliminary change makes apparently impracticable any immediate proposals for the unification which it is the object of this memorandum to advocate.

In further justification of this memorandum, if justification be at all necessary, I may point to weighty suggestions given in evidence before the Commission which bear upon the point. Not all the witnesses who touched upon it were in favour of unification, but men of long official experience, in centrally or locally administering or in teaching, gave the idea their support. Thus the Secretary of the Charity Commission(5) proposed that means should be provided whereby the local authority in county boroughs should take the place of the school board and "have the "whole of Elementary and Secondary Education under its direc- "tion." Her Majesty's Senior Chief Inspector of Schools thought that, if it could be managed, it would be very desirable to make both primary and secondary education the work of one board.(6) In the opinion of Mr. Fitch, "it would be a great mistake to "continue to separate the government of elementary schools in "the hands of boards, and to introduce new separate local "authority to deal with Higher and Secondary Education." It seemed to him very important that the representative authority which concerns itself with elementary education should have enlarged powers and deal with secondary schools also.(7) The Head Master of King Edward's Grammar School, Five Ways, Birmingham,(8) thought that the whole of the educational work of that town could most usefully be controlled and directed by one authority, and that the ideal arrangement would be a board to take charge of primary and secondary education as well. In the opinion of Professor Anthony(9), in order to get the maximum benefit there must be only one local authority for all forms of public education in the locality. Dr. Bruce(10) proposed that all local education should be under one board, a board acting for a sufficiently large area. Representing the Teachers' Guild, Mr. Storr(11) expressed preference for the establishment of a new local

(5) Mr. Fearon, Q. 10,895.

(6) Mr. Sharpe, Q. 1522–4.

(7) Mr. Fitch, Q. 9050, 9159.

(8) Mr. MacCarthy, Q. 6558 and 6438.

(9) Professor Anthony, Q. 10,615.

(10) Mr. Bruce, Q. 6633.

(11) Mr. Storr, Q. 7584.

authority which should embrace both Secondary and Elementary Education. Speaking on behalf of the National Union of Teachers, Mr. Bowden[12] thought it essential that there should be a single authority only. Sir Albert Rollit and Principal Symes[13], as representing the Municipal Corporations Association, preferred one and the same local authority for all branches of public education, the powers of school boards to be merged therein. And since these suggestions necessarily mean the modification or supersession of school boards as at present existing, it is significant to find that representatives of the School Boards Association were not only not opposed to such change, but were emphatically in favour of it. Thus the honorary secretary to that association proposed that in towns the school boards should be reconstituted under the name of Boards of Education; that all education within the area, secondary, elementary, and technical, should be placed under the direction of this new authority; and that similar bodies should be elected for county areas.[14] Another representative, the clerk to the Sheffield School Board, gave it as the view of the association that the school board, reconstituted and re-named, should be the general educational authority.[15] A representative of the London School Board[16] thought that with modifications that Board should and might administer secondary education for the metropolis. From other evidence, also, signs of similar opinions might be gleaned. But sufficient has been said to show the direction in which future legislation might go.

[12] Mrs. Bowden. Q. 8078.
[13] Sir A. Rollit and Professor Symes, Q. 15,846–52.
[14] Mr. Wyatt, Q. 6644, 9664.
[15] Mr. Moss, Q. 6967.
[16] The Hon. L. Stanley. Q. 16,859–60.

It will be noted that, so far as it was found practicable to devise immediate means for obviating existing obstacles, co-ordination, which is in some degree the deputy and substitute of unification, is furthered by almost all the recommendations in the Report. I write with the desire to recognise this fully, whilst seeking for complete identification. Nevertheless, though the problem before the Commission was essentially limited to the organisation of Secondary Education, I venture to hope that the problem for legislators will be regarded as one of wider dimensions. I concur in the Report of the Commission as suggesting a workable plan on the adopted basis; but I trust that circumstances may promote a more comprehensive scheme of legislation, affecting both grades of schools. At any rate, out of temporary differentiation unification can be ultimately evolved. Until that happens, no matter how much we amend the organisation of the parts, we cannot be said to have regarded with perfect wisdom the whole.

J. H. Yoxall.

I desire to express my agreement with this memorandum.

E. C. Maclure.

Memorandum on the Proportion of the Population receiving a Secondary Education, and on the extent to which Public Elementary Schools are used as Preparatory Schools; by Mrs. Henry Sidgwick.

In estimating the proportion of the population receiving a secondary education in any locality, what is usually done is to count the number of places occupied in secondary schools, and in order to ascertain whether the number is adequate, it is compared with the estimate made by the Schools Enquiry Commission of the number of children requiring a secondary education. The result appears to me to be misleading, because the two numbers are not really comparable.

The Schools Enquiry Commission assumed that parents in certain occupations, or in receipt of a certain income, gave, or ought to give, a secondary education to their children, and an estimate was accordingly made of the number of such children. The conclusion arrived at was that, to accommodate boys over 8 years old, 12·28 secondary school places were required per 1,000 of the population; the average limits of age of these boys, balancing those who left school before 15 against those who stayed at school longer, being 8 and 15.

In the secondary education required the commissioners, of course, included the preparatory stages between the ages of 8 and 12 which it was assumed should, as a rule, be given in special preparatory schools, or preparatory divisions of schools. They thought, it is true, that a few of the boys taking a third grade education might take the preparatory stages of it in national schools (*see* Report, p. 90), but do not seem to have allowed for this in their estimate of secondary school places required. In comparing the present state of things with this ideal, we must therefore also include the preparatory stages, which, as may be seen from the returns furnished to the commission are now often taken in public elementary schools.

Assuming that the Seventh Standard is the final stage of elementary education, anything beyond that being secondary, and that (say) 13 is the average age at which boys who carry their school education further complete the seventh standard we may arrive at a rough estimate of the boys actually receiving a secondary education, comparable with the estimate made by the Schools Enquiry Commission of the number who ought to be receiving it, by counting all the boys at any school who are 13

but under 14, and not in the standards, multiplying this number by 6, and adding all the boys at any school above 14 years of age. This assumes, of course, that the numbers are constant—that is, that the same number of boys between 13 and 14 years of age will be at secondary schools five years hence as now. In this way we include the boys over eight years of age who are taking the preparatory stages of a Secondary Education at public elementary schools, at small private preparatory schools from which it is difficult to obtain statistics, and at home.

The data actually at our disposal only enable us to make a still rougher estimate. The returns furnished to the Commission from endowed and proprietary schools in the selected districts give us the number of children within the ages of 8 to 12, 12 to 14, 14 to 16 and over 16 in May 1894. They also tell us what proportion of the day scholars come from outside the town, and what proportion of the entries (sometimes of the number in the school instead of the entries) are from elementary schools. The number of boarders and of day scholars are also given, though not always for the same date as the other numbers; we may, however, with sufficient accuracy for our purpose, assume the proportion of boarders to day scholars to be unchanged. From these data, assuming for simplicity that the children in each age period are evenly distributed over that period, we arrive at the number receiving secondary education implied by the numbers in any school by taking whichever number is highest of the children between 12 and 14, or between 14 and 16, multiplying that by 3 or by 4 respectively, and adding the number of children above that age. It will be observed that any error in the assumption of even distribution over an age period tends to too low an estimate on the whole, since unequal distribution implies a larger number preparing.

To eliminate the children attending the school from outside the town, whether as boarders or day scholars, it is simplest to assume that they and the town children are proportionally distributed as to age. The error here is probably not very important, but it seems likely that it tends to magnify slightly the number of town children, because children are less likely to come from a distance when very young.

To estimate the number of children preparing in public elementary schools, it is probably safest, in the absence of definite information, to assume in the same way a proportional distribution as to age. If this assumption is erroneous it is either because the children from the elementary schools enter later than the average, or because they leave earlier, or both. In either case there would be a concentration of children from elementary schools among those between the ages of 12 and 16 at the school, and this would imply a *larger* number preparing than our assumption brings out. It may probably also be assumed that the children from public elementary schools are

proportionally divided between the town children and those from outside. In the tables which follow, the children preparing in public schools are given separately in the sixth column, but are, of course, also included in the fourth column.

In the case of the ex-standard classes of higher grade schools our returns cannot be used in the same way, because the ages of the children in the standards and those in the ex-standard classes are not distinguished, nor in most cases are the boys and girls in mixed schools enumerated separately. Particulars about sex and ages of children in the ex-standard classes of the higher grade schools at Leeds, Halifax, and Sheffield are, however, given in Mr. Laurie's Report (Vol. VII., pp. 136–174, and pp. 192–195), and about Leeds in Dr. Forsyth's evidence (Q. 8578) and similar information about some of the Manchester schools may be gathered from Mr. Kitchener's Report (pp. 113–134) and Mrs. Kitchener's (pp. 366–376). In the calculations for different towns which follow I have, in the case of Halifax, Sheffield, and the Central School at Leeds, availed myself of Mr. Laurie's figures for the ex-standard classes, and estimated the number preparing for these classes from the number in the largest year or from the number in the class first entered according to the information available. In the case of Norwich, Bradford, Birmingham, and the Beverley Street School at Leeds, the number in the ex-standard classes is taken from the returns made to the Commission. When I have no information to the contrary, I have assumed that the average age for entering the ex-standard classes is 13, that three-fourths of the children are in their first ex-standard year, and that in mixed ex-standard classes there are twice as many boys as girls. These assumptions are founded on such information as I can extract from the figures and from the statements of witnesses, but are somewhat conjectural. The children preparing for the ex-standard classes may, without sensible error, be assumed to do so in public elementary schools.

I give the numbers arrived at in the manner above described for a few places arranged in order of size. Children under 8 years of age are of course omitted, and in the case of places of under 200,000 inhabitants, the children from outside the town are not counted in, but are shown in a separate column.

THETFORD. Population 4,247.

Maximum Fees without Extras.	Schools.	Number in the School.	Estimated Number preparing.	Total.	Estimated Number preparing in Public Elementary Schools.	Children from outside the Town.
£ s. d.						
5 0 0	Boy's Grammar School	27	23	50	10	36
5 0 0	Girls Grammar School	35	21	56	5	16

EXETER. Population 37,404. Boys.

Maximum Fees without Extras.	Schools.	Number in the School.	Estimated Number preparing.	Total.	Estimated Number preparing in Public Elementary Schools.	Children from outside the Town.
£ s. d.						
18 0 0	Grammar School -	85	29	114	0	46
5 0 0	Hele's School - -	171	75	246	34	43
		256	104	360	34	

EXETER. Girls.

Maximum Fees without Extras.	Schools.	Number in the School.	Estimated Number preparing.	Total.	Estimated Number preparing in Public Elementary Schools.	Children from outside the Town.
£ s. d.						
15 0 0	High School - -	101	40	141	0	25
5 0 0	Middle School - -	206	116	322	12	61
		307	156	463	12	

COVENTRY. Population 52,574. Boys.

Maximum Fees without Extras.	Schools.	Number in the School.	Estimated number preparing.	Total.	Estimated Number preparing in Public Elementary Schools.	Children from outside the Town.
£ s. d.						
10 10 0	Grammar School -	73	24	97	1	57
2 0 0	Bablake School - -	246	209	455	53	45
4 4 0	Private School - -	35	?	35	?	?
		354	233	587	54	

HALIFAX. Population 89,832. Boys.

Maximum Fees without Extras.	Schools.	Number in the School.	Estimated number preparing.	Total.	Estimated Number preparing in Public Elementary Schools.	Children from outside the Town.
£ s. d.						
12 0 0	Grammar School -	72	48	120	25	24
1 0 0	Higher Grade School (organised science school).	127	342	469	342	
	Park House Private School.	70	?	70	?	?
	Another private school, say	30 ?	?	30 ?	?	?
		299	390	689	367	

NORWICH. Population 100,970. Boys.

Maximum Fees without Extras.	Schools.	Number in the School.	Estimated number preparing.	Total.	Estimated number preparing in Public Elementary Schools.	Children from outside the Town.
£ s. d.						
16 10 0	Grammar School -	34	21	55	0	53
6 6 0	Middle School - -	131	43	174	9	46
2 5 0	Presbyterian School -	90	25	115	?	5
1 10 0	Higher Grade School (ex-standard classes).	70	262	332	380	
	Private Schools - -	?				
		325	351	676	389	

BRADFORD. Population 216,361. Boys.

Maximum Fees without Extras.	Schools.	Number in the School.	Estimated Number preparing.	Total.	Estimated Number preparing in Public Elementary Schools.
£ s. d.					
16 0 0	Grammar School - - -	419	171	590	65
3 15 0	Technical School - - -	235	815	1,050	711
1 0 0	Higher Grade Schools (ex-standard classes).	83	311	394	311
	Two small Private Schools - -	?			
		737	1,297	2,034	1,087

SHEFFIELD. Population 324,243. Boys.

Maximum Fees without Extras.	Schools.	Number in the School.	Estimated Number preparing.	Total.	Estimated Number preparing in Public Elementary Schools.
£ s. d.					
13 10 0	Grammar School - -	156	95	251	8
9 9 0	Wesley School - - -	128	72	200	1
About 5 0 0	Technical School - -	77	215	292	? 215
6 0 0	Mr. Newell's School - -	105	131	236	68
Free	Higher Grade School (ex-standard classes).	260	870	1,130	870
	One or two small Private schools.	?			
		726	1,383	2,109	1,162

SHEFFIELD. Girls.

Maximum Fees without Extras.	Schools.	Number in the School.	Estimated Number preparing.	Total.	Estimated Number preparing in Public Elementary Schools.
£ s. d.					
15 15 0	High School - - -	298	90	388	18
6 0 0	Mr. Newell's School - -	131	90	221	50
Free	Higher Grade Schools (ex-standard classes).	215	765	980	765
	Private Schools - -	?			
		644	945	1,509	833

LEEDS. Population 367,505. Boys.

Maximum Fees without Extras.	Schools.	Number in the School.	Estimated Number preparing.	Total.	Estimated Number preparing in Public Elementary Schools.
£ s. d.					
10 10 0	Grammar School - -	153	70	223	11
7 10 0	Mechanics Institute School -	290	154	444	42
6 6 0	Church Middle School -	111	61	172	30
1 10 0	Central Higher Grade School (ex-standard classes).	336	699	1,035	699
Free	Beverley Street Higher Grade School.	36	135	171	135
7 10 0	Springfield Mount Private School.	39	8	47	—
	Headingley Wesleyan College	41	?	41	?
		1,006	1,127	2,133	917

LEEDS. Girls.

Maximum Fees without Extras.	Schools.	Number in the School.	Estimated Number preparing.	Total.	Estimated Number preparing in Public Elementary Schools.
£ s. d.					
18 18 0	Girls' High School - -	142	101	243	2
7 10 0	Mechanics' Institute School -	149	84	233	11
6 6 0	Church Middle School -	100	16	116	3
1 10 0	Higher Grade School (ex-standard classes).	96	247	343	247
Free	Beverley Street Higher Grade School.	18	74	92	74
	Private Schools - - -	?			
		505	522	1,027	337

BIRMINGHAM. Population as estimated by Mr. Massie for "Greater Birmingham" (*see* Vol. VII., p. 52), 530,000. Boys.

Maximum Fees without Extras.	Schools.	Number in the School.	Estimated Number preparing.	Total.	Estimated Number preparing in Public Elementary Schools.
£ s. d.					
12 0 0	King Edward's High School -	422	272*	694	41
3 0 0	Grammar Schools - -	872	737	1,609	475
		1,294	1,009	2,303	516
Free	Higher Grade Schools (ex-standard classes).	269	1,009	1,278	1,009
1 0 0	Do. - Aston -	29	109	138	138
	Private schools - -	?			
		1,592	2,127	3,719	1,663

* Omitting those who are preparing in the Grammar Schools.

BIRMINGHAM. Girls.

Maximum Fees without Extras.	Schools.	Number in the School.	Estimated Number preparing.	Total.	Estimated Number preparing in Public Elementary Schools.
£ s. d.					
15 15 0	Edgbaston High School -	147	38	185	—
15 15 0	Church College - - -	196	94	290	—
9 0 0	King Edward's High School -	246	113*	359	10
3 0 0	Do. Grammar Schools	826	636	1,462	318
		1,415	881	2,296	328
Free	Higher Grade School (ex-standard classes).	? 77	288	365	288
1 0 0	Do. Aston -	17	64	81	64
	Private schools - -	?			
		1,509	1,233	2,742	680

* Omitting those who are preparing in the Grammar Schools.

Dividing the sum of the numbers in the "total" column for each place by the population of the place we get numbers

comparable with the estimate of the Schools Enquiry Commission. The results are as follows :—

Place.	Population.	Number of Children per 1,000 of the Population receiving a Secondary Education.	
		Boys.	Girls.
Thetford - -	4,247	11·8	13·2
Exeter - - -	37,404	10·	12·1
Coventry - - -	52,574	11·1	
Halifax - -	89,832	7·6	
Norwich - -	100,970	6·7	
Bradford - -	216,361	9·4	
(Or omitting grammar school boys from outside the town) - - -		8·6	
Sheffield - - -	324,243	6·5	4·7
Leeds - - -	367,515	5·8	2·8
Birmingham - -	530,000	7·0	5·2

It will be seen that in almost all cases the number is decidedly less than that assumed by the Schools Enquiry Commission. The figures, however, require some correction. In the first place our information about private schools is defective. Those which are purely preparatory for the other schools are, of course. allowed for, but there are, no doubt, in some at least of the above places, more private schools which educate children, especially girls, above the preparatory age, than we know of. Secondly, no allowance is made for children from the town attending boarding schools at a distance; but probably in the large towns these are balanced by the children from outside attending schools in the town, who are included in the numbers given for towns over 200,000 inhabitants. I have included them partly because when the place is large the number of children from outside becomes comparatively unimportant,* and partly because my information on this point as regards some important schools is deficient. Finally, the assumption of equal distribution over an age-period may in some cases lead to a serious under-estimate of the number preparing.

These and other possible sources of error tend generally to an under-estimate of the number. Still, after allowing for this, I think that if the estimate of the Schools Enquiry Commission is trustworthy, a considerable proportion of the children for whom they thought that schools were needed are now satisfied with the public elementary schools without proceeding beyond the standards. This, in the places under consideration, cannot, I think, be attributed to defective school accommodation. The places are selected, among those about which we seem to have

* This can hardly be said, however, of the Bradford Grammar School, where 31 per cent. of the boys come from outside the town.

fairly complete information, as having schools of different grades* which are not overcrowded and generally not full, so that they must be assumed to satisfy the demand for the kind of education they supply.

It seems further to be clear that the demand varies considerably in different places—probably according to the character of the local industries. Where, as in some manufacturing districts, there is scope for a large amount of unskilled labour, the demand for secondary education would naturally tend to be small; and where, as in small country towns, the place is a centre of distribution and of skilled work for the surrounding district, it would naturally tend to be relatively large.

Our statistics bring out another point, namely, that in estimating the number of secondary school places required, it may be assumed that a large proportion of the secondary school children will, between the age of 8 and 12, attend either private schools or public elementary schools, and not avail themselves of a preparatory department in the secondary school proper even where this is provided. First and second grade schools which take children between 8 and 12, appear very seldom to have as many as half the number of children between those ages that would correspond to the number of older children. In some places the preparatory stages for second grade schools are very largely taken at public elementary schools, and we have evidence at Liverpool (*see* Mr. Hance's evidence), and at Birmingham (Report of King Edward's Schools), that this practice is increasing. It appears to me that there is a great deal to be said for narrowing the field of secondary education to be organised, by assuming that the public elementary schools are sufficient public provision for education up to the age of 12, and making 12 the lower limit of age in new or newly-organised public secondary schools. (About $12\frac{1}{4}$ is the average age of entrance to the commercial schools at Liverpool, and at Birmingham about $11\frac{1}{4}$ to the boys' grammar schools, and about $11\frac{3}{4}$ to the girls' grammar schools.) If we omitted boys under 12 the number requiring secondary education would, according to the old estimate, be reduced to less than one-half.

Our information about schools for girls is less complete than about those for boys, but so far as it goes it appears to show that where the provision of first and second grade school accommodation for girls is equal in amount and quality to that for boys, it is equally made use of. This is the case at Thetford and Exeter, and a comparison of the boys' and girls' grammar schools at Bradford indicates the same. The girls' grammar school with fees of 15*l.* 15*s.* has 325 pupils, and adding the estimated number preparing, we get a total of 550 to compare with the 590 boys. But of the 419 boys in the school it appears that about 130 come from outside the town, while only about 45 of the

* Except at Thetford, where the population is clearly too small to support more than one secondary school.

girls do so, so that the number of town boys and of town girls in the schools are about the same, while the total number of girls, including those preparing, is larger than the total number of boys. At Birmingham the public provision for girls is less than for boys, but the deficiency is made up by two proprietary schools at higher fees, and the number of girls in the endowed and proprietary schools together exceeds the number of boys in the King Edward's schools. Third grade education as measured by higher grade schools seems at present to be less taken by girls than by boys in most places.

ELEANOR MILDRED SIDGWICK.

Memorandum on the Welsh Intermediate Education Act, 1889.

Object of Act.

This Act has for its object the making of further provision for the intermediate and technical education of the inhabitants of Wales and of Monmouthshire, and is to be read together with the Endowed Schools Acts. Intermediate education, as defined by the Act, may be taken to be that which lies between the province of the university or university college on the one hand, and that of the elementary schools on the other. Technical education is defined as in the Technical Instruction Act, 1889.

Establishment of a local authority.

The chief modification of the procedure under the Endowed Schools Acts, effected by the Welsh Act, consists in the transference of the initiative in framing schemes from the Charity Commission to certain local authorities, and in this respect it will be seen that the Welsh Act is the direct offspring of the Local Government Act, 1888.

The local authority is constituted for each county and county borough, and is twofold: (*a*) the council of the county or county borough; (*b*) a body of five persons, called the Joint Education Committee of the county or county borough council.

Function of County Council under the Act.

(*a.*) The council of the county or county borough has power to recommend to the Joint Education Committee the inclusion in a scheme of provision for payment out of the county rate of a yearly sum not exceeding the amount produced by a rate of ½*d.* in the pound. The council may make a similar recommendation with regard to money applicable for education under the Local Taxation (Customs and Excise Act), 1890. The council has further the duty of electing a majority of the Joint Education Committee, and is given a special status for the purpose of applying to the Charity Commission for the amendment of schemes.

A County Council is bound by a resolution recommending the inclusion in a scheme of money from the rate or from the Local Taxation Act grant, and can only be relieved of its obligation

under such resolution, in whole or in part, by an amending scheme.

In every county and county borough a rate has been levied to the full extent allowed by the Act, and much the largest part of the funds available under the Local Taxation Act has been similarly voted for the purposes of schemes under the Act.

Constitution of Joint Education Committee.

(*b.*) The Joint Education Committee is a body of five persons, three of whom are nominated by the council of the county or county borough for which the Committee is constituted, and two by the Lord President of Her Majesty's Privy Council. The members appointed by the county or borough council are not required to be members of that body. In the case of two counties, one person so nominated was not a councillor. The nominees of the Lord President are required to be persons resident in or well acquainted with the county.

The Joint Education Committee is required to report to the county or borough council, but is not otherwise subject to its control.

An Assistant Commissioner of the Charity Commission has a statutory right to be present at the meetings of any Joint Education Committee, but not to vote.

Function of Joint Education Committee.

It is the duty of the Joint Education Committee to prepare and submit to the Charity Commission a scheme or schemes for the intermediate and technical education of the inhabitants of its county, either alone or in conjunction with the inhabitants of any adjoining county or counties, specifying in each scheme the educational endowments within the county which in its opinion ought to be used for the purposes of the scheme. But if money from the rates, or from the Local Taxation Act grant, is available, the scheme may be made without charitable endowments.

The Committee may either draft its own scheme or submit proposals for a scheme, leaving the drafting to be done by the Charity Commission. The latter alternative has invariably been adopted.

If the scheme of the Committee is adopted by the Charity Commissioners as it stands, or with modifications assented to by the Committee, it goes forward in the same way as if it had been a scheme made by the Commissioners themselves under the Endowed Schools Acts. If the Commissioners and the Committee fail to agree about the scheme or any part of it, the Commissioners can then prepare a scheme of their own, but when they submit their scheme to the Education Department they must, if the Joint Education Committee so desire, submit together therewith the scheme of the Committee also, and the Education Department has then to decide which of the two schemes it will approve.

The Joint Education Committee may submit one scheme for the whole of its county, or separate schemes for separate districts or endowments. And the Charity Commissioners may, if they

think fit, accept a joint scheme from two or more Joint Education Committees.

The powers of the Joint Education Committee were originally given for a period of three years, and have, since the expiration of that time, been annually extended by the Expiring Laws Continuance Act. During the continuance of those powers, the power of the Charity Commissioners to initiate schemes for educational endowments, except with the consent of the Education Department, is suspended.

Endowments.

The endowments within the jurisdiction of a Joint Education Committee are, generally speaking, the educational endowments applied within the county of the Committee, subject to certain exceptions as provided by the Endowed Schools Acts, but including a considerable class of endowments connected with elementary schools which are excepted from the jurisdiction under the Endowed Schools Acts in England. Where the benefits of an endowment are divisible between two or more counties, the Charity Commissioners have to determine its apportionment.

The powers of the Endowed Schools Acts for the transfer or re-distribution of endowments may be exercised also under the Welsh Act; but the difficulty of moving an endowment from one place to another does not appear to have been much diminished by the interposition of a county authority between the Trustees and the Charity Commissioners. On the other hand, it has been found comparatively easy to arrange that endowments should be thrown into a county educational fund and amalgamated for purposes of administration, provided that the place in which each endowment has been applied receives back from the county authority at least as large an income as it was previously enjoying

The Treasury grant.

It is provided that the Treasury shall contribute in aid of schools, aided by a county and subject to a scheme made under the Act, an annual amount not exceeding in the aggregate the amount payable in pursuance of the Act out of the county rate. The Treasury contribution is to depend upon the efficiency of the schools, which is to be tested by such annual inspection and report as may be required by regulations to be made by the Treasury from time to time.

Work accomplished by Joint Education Committees.

In every case the Joint Education Committee prepared a single scheme for the provision and organisation of intermediate and technical education for the whole of its county. These schemes include, with only one or two exceptions, provisions affecting the existing endowed grammar schools in each area. They have all received the Queen's approval, except in the case of one county where progress has been delayed by an appeal to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. In some cases further schemes have been prepared dealing with particular endowments, and some of these are still incomplete.

Finance.

The total financial resources dealt with by the schemes for the several counties and county boroughs amount to something short of 80,000*l.* per annum, made up as follows:—

		£
Produce of rate of ½*d.* in the £	- about	17,350
Treasury Grant (maximum)	- „	17,350
Local Taxation Act Grant	- „	25,500
Endowments (gross income)	- „	19,000
		£79,200

Provision made for intermediate education.

Provision is made by these schemes for the establishment and maintenance of 98 schools, 22 of which are existing schools more or less reorganised to meet the new circumstances. More than 70 new schools are being gradually brought into existence, the cost of erection being defrayed partly out of accumulations of grants under the Local Taxation Act, but also to a large extent by voluntary contributions of money and gifts of sites. Provision is made for the education of girls under these schemes in the proportion, roughly, of two girls to three boys. Mixed schools for boys and girls are being started in the more thinly populated districts. But where the funds, or the population, are not considered sufficient for the maintenance of separate schools for boys and girls, the more common expedient is that of the "dual" school, in which boys and girls are taught in separate departments but with a common staff and administration.

Administration of schemes.

The duty of the Joint Education Committee is confined to the framing of schemes; it has no administrative functions. The funds and schools are administered by governing bodies constituted by the several schemes. The only requirement of the Welsh Act, besides those contained in the Endowed Schools Acts with regard to the religious opinions of governors, is to the effect that the County Council is to be "adequately" represented on the governing body of any school receiving aid from it.

Constitution of governing bodies.

In the county boroughs the scheme is administered by a single governing body. In the counties there is a division of administrative functions between a county governing body and local governing bodies for particular districts or schools. In every county the county council nominates at least a bare majority of the county governing body, which also contains in every case representatives of some one of the three Welsh University Colleges. The remainder of the body is composed of representatives of the local governing bodies and of coöpted members. The size of the county governing body varies, but is seldom more than 30 or less than 20 members.

The local governing body ranges in size from 11 to 16 members, and generally contains representatives of the county

council, the county governing body, the local government authority, and the elementary schools.

On both the county and the local body women are eligible, and in many cases provision is made for ensuring their presence.

Technical instruction Acts in Wales.

The Technical Instruction Acts apply to Wales and Monmouthshire as well as to England, and have been put into force side by side with the Welsh Intermediate Education Act. In many counties the Joint Education Committee was nominated by the county council to act also as its committee under the Technical Instruction Acts, with a view to avoid friction, or conflict, or overlapping of schemes. Power is taken in every scheme under the Welsh Act to add to local governing bodies any number of governors required, in order to allow of aid under the Technical Instruction Acts being given to a school.

Conferences of Joint Education Committees.

The general uniformity of plan which characterises the schemes made under the Welsh Act is due partly to the influence of the Charity Commission, but, perhaps, even more to the practice adopted by the Joint Education Committees of meeting together and holding general conferences during the period in which they were severally preparing their scheme. At these conferences general principles and common or special difficulties were discussed, and although the conclusions of the conference were not binding, yet they were very frequently endorsed and adopted by the separate Committees.

Central Welsh Board for intermediate education.

Another result of these conferences was the preparation of a scheme for the establishment of a Central Welsh Board for Intermediate Education to perform, together with some minor matters, the important function of providing for the examination and inspection of all intermediate schools regulated by schemes under the Welsh Act. The proposed Central Board will act for this purpose subject to regulations to be made by the Treasury, as already noticed, with regard to the conditions on which the Treasury grant is to be made. The results of the examination and inspection will be reported by the Central Board to the Charity Commissioners, by whom it will be forwarded, with such observations as may be required, to the Treasury. Every county and county borough has agreed to contribute yearly to the funds of the Central Board an amount to be fixed by the Central Board, but not to exceed 5 per cent, of the total revenue of the county governing body for the preceding year. This scheme has been adopted by the Charity Commissioners and approved by the Treasury and by the Education Department.

Temporary provision for examination and inspection of schools.

Pending the establishment of the Central Board, the Charity Commissioners have made special arrangements for the examination and inspection of the schools for the purpose of determining the amount of the Treasury grant. These arrangements will be found fully explained in the Forty-second Report of the Charity Commissioners (pp. 31–36). They are subject

to regulations issued by the Lords Commissioners of the Treasury in the year 1892; a copy of which is appended to this Memorandum. About 25 schools were ready for examination and inspection under these Regulations in the summer of 1895.

Relation of intermediate to elementary schools.

The Welsh Act provides that scholarships may be established in higher or other elementary schools. In the case of each of the county boroughs under the Act the scheme makes provision for the exercise of this power.

Elementary teachers are to be specially represented on the proposed Central Board, and are already represented on some county governing bodies. Elementary school authorities are in almost every case represented on the local governing bodies.

In nearly every case one fifth of the income allotted to each district is appropriated for scholarships tenable in the county school of the district; and of this fund not less than one half is limited to those who have been for not less than three years in some public elementary school.

The question of the account to be taken of existing higher grade elementary schools has been found very troublesome. In the county boroughs it was felt that, but for those schools, the Committee would have been obliged to establish two grades of school. In has therefore been decided to recognise the educational work of a secondary character done by those schools, and, with a view to avoid competition, to give the intermediate school a markedly superior character, so far as this can be done in a scheme by means of the tuition fee the curriculum, and the age to which scholars may remain. Further steps have been taken towards a due co-ordination of the schools by means of scholarships, and by the representation of the School Board on the governing body of the intermediate schools. In the great mining districts of Glamorgan and Monmouthshire, where there is a comparatively small middle-class, the higher grade elementary schools which already exist, do, in fact, or might without difficulty be made to, supply the kind of education most in request. But the intermediate school is asked for in such districts because it has a greater prestige and a better guarantee of efficiency, and affords better opportunities for scholars of high promise.

The standard of entrance to the county school is generally fixed to correspond to the acquirements of children who have reached the Vth Standard in elementary schools. In one or two cases the IVth Standard is preferred.

In thinly populated districts remote from any school, power is taken in several schemes to apply the share of income allotted to the district either in scholarships or in the maintenance of an Upper Department in connexion with some elementary school in the district.

Position of head masters.

Several Joint Education Committees have not accepted the policy of the Commissioners, founded on the recommendation of

the Schools Enquiry Commission, with respect to the position of the Head Master :—

(*a.*) In relation to the Governing Body, they have preferred to give him an absolute right to be present at all meetings of the Governors, and to take part in the proceedings, but not to vote.

(*b.*) In relation to the teaching staff, they have preferred not to give the Head Master the absolute power of dismissing his assistant masters,

W. N. BRUCE.

REGULATIONS made by the LORDS COMMISSIONERS of HER MAJESTY'S TREASURY under SECTION 9 of "THE WELSH "INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION ACT, 1889."

1. The Treasury will in each year pay, subject to the conditions and reductions herein-after stated, in aid of each school aided by a county, and subject to a scheme made under the Act, a grant equal to such part of the amount payable in that year in pursuance of the Act out of the county rate as may be designated in respect of the school by a schedule prepared by the County Governing Body and approved by the Charity Commissioners. The grant for each school shall fall due on such day as may be from time to time appointed by the Treasury.*

2. The grant will be paid to the persons to whom the County Council contribution is directed by scheme to be paid in pursuance of section 7, sub-section 2 of the Act.

3. The conditions required to be fulfilled by a school in order to obtain an annual grant under the Act are as follows :—

(*a.*) The school must be efficient as regards instruction.

(*b.*) The school premises must be healthy, and suitable for the purposes of an intermediate school.

(*c.*) The school premises must provide sufficient accommodation for the scholars attending the school.

(*d.*) The school must be supplied with suitable furniture and apparatus.

(*e.*) The school must be conducted in accordance with the scheme under which it is established.

(*f.*) The school must be open at all reasonable times to officers authorised by the Charity Commissioners, and any returns or information called for by that Department must be duly furnished.

(*g.*) The school must be reported on by the Charity Commissioners in respect of the fulfilment of the preceding conditions or otherwise.

* In cases where a change is made in the date at which the grant falls due, of where there is other sufficient reason, the grant may be made for a period greater or less than a year; and in that case it shall be proportionately increased or diminished.

4. For the purpose of ascertaining whether these conditions are fulfilled there shall be an annual examination and inspection of the school. Such examination and inspection may be conducted by a Central Welsh Board for Intermediate Education, established by scheme under the Act, provided that such scheme is approved by the Treasury. The results of such examination and inspection shall be reported to the Charity Commissioners; and the Charity Commissioners will make such inquiry, and, in case of need, such further examination or inspection as they think necessary.

5. If the Charity Commissioners report to the Treasury that any of these conditions are not satisfied, the grant may be refused or may be reduced by such number of tenths as the Treasury may determine.

6. Any officer authorised in that behalf by the Charity Commissioners shall be at liberty to attend any meeting of the Central Welsh Board for Intermediate Education, or of any Committee of that Board, and to take part in the proceedings, but shall not have a right to vote.

Treasury Chambers, (Signed) R. E. WELBY.
June 20, 1892.

Memorandum on the future Constitution of the Charity Commission, by Mr. F. S. Stevenson, M.P., Fourth Charity Commissioner.

Assuming the desirability of transferring to the Education Department the functions now performed by the Charity Commissioners under the Endowed Schools Acts, the question remains, what should be done with respect to the work which they have to carry out under the Charitable Trusts Acts?

Their duties under the latter head may be roughly described as being partly administrative, partly judicial, and partly quasi-judicial. Their judicial and quasi-judicial work does not differ so much in kind as in degree from similar work which has been placed by statute in the hands of the Local Government Board, and of other departments of the administration, the heads of which are changed with every turn of the political tide. There is, therefore, no insuperable obstacle, as far as that is concerned to the transfer of the powers of the Charity Commissioners, under the Charitable Trusts Acts, to a responsible Minister of the Crown. It may, however, be doubted whether it would be advisable to burden a Minister of Education with the task of carrying out duties which bear no necessary or immediate relation to those which he is called upon to discharge in his own department. For example, the functions of the Official Trustee of Charity Lands and of the Official Trustees of Charitable Funds; the duty of removing and appointing trustees; the

framing of new schemes relating to the administration of almshouses, doles, &c.; the organisation of local inquiries, and the preparation of reports on charitable endowments; the performance of the numerous duties imposed upon the Commissioners under the Local Government Act, 1894, and other similar portions of the work of the Commissioners, have no direct bearing, and in some cases not even an indirect bearing, upon the work of the Education Department. Some of them, in fact, might appear to come more properly within the cognizance of the Local Government Board.

On the other hand, there exist, unquestionably, numerous charities in which educational and non-educational purposes are inextricably intermixed, so as not to admit of absolutely separate treatment. In cases, for instance, in which, say, 200*l.* are left for the maintenance of almshouses and the surplus for education, it would not be desirable that there should be a conflict of opinion or of action between the Charity Commissioners within whose purview the former objects would be placed, and the Education Department, which would be responsible, under new conditions, for the latter. There are also numerous questions even, at the present time, with respect to which harmonious co-operation is desirable on the part of those who are responsible for the administration of the Endowed Schools Acts and on the part of those who have in their hands the administration of the Charitable Trusts Acts; and constant communications have to pass, with that object in view, between the two sides of the Charity Commission. It would be detrimental to the public interest to render that co-operation more difficult.

With the intention of suggesting a possible method of meeting the difficulty, I venture to propose the following plan.

I do not, in the first place, think that the Education Department as such should be charged with the manifold and complicated duties of the Commissioners under the Charitable Trusts Acts. Considering, however, the extent to which educational and non-educational purposes are intermingled, it would be well that the Education Department should have not merely an adequate but, if possible, a predominant voice in the counsels of the Commission.

It may be assumed that when Parliament proceeds to re-organise that department in order to meet the growing requirements of the times, it will create a Board of Education constituted on a basis similar to that on which certain other departments of the Government have been established, that is, with a president, a parliamentary secretary, and a permanent secretary. What I would suggest would be, that those three officers of the future Board of Education should also act, for the time being, in the capacity of unpaid Charity Commissioners apart from the functions they would exercise in their own department. They would thus be enabled to take a part, whenever the necessity arose, in the proceedings of the Commissioners.

Harmony of action and, to a great extent, continuity of policy would be secured, and, on the other hand, the Charity Commission would retain its separate identity, would keep its own staff, and would not be simply merged in the Education Department. At the same time, the responsibility of the Commission to Parliament would be placed upon a more definite footing. The President of the Board of Education would answer questions and defend the action of the Commission in the House of Commons, not, indeed, in his capacity of head of the Education Department, but as a Commissioner who was cognizant of the doings of his colleagues, and who was able to control their policy, when questions of a contentious character in regard to matters of policy had to be decided. With respect to routine business, there would, of course, be no essential difference as between the present state of things and that which is now suggested, and the Commissioners would necessarily be bound by rules and principles of law to the same extent to which they are so bound at the present time.

The change in question might furnish an opportunity for a reduction in the number of paid Commissioners from three to two, and a consequential reduction in the number of legal departments, otherwise called geographical districts, also from three to two. The new districts might be made conterminous with the two districts of the present Commissioners under the Endowed Schools Acts. It is possible, however, that a slight increase in the subordinate staff might become necessary.

The Charity Commission, as thus reconstituted, would consist of two paid members, each with a district of his own, and three unpaid members, namely, the three representatives of the Education Department. The chair would probably be taken by the President of the Board of Education, if he were present. In all probability, however, neither his attendance nor that of the two secretaries of the Education Department would be required on ordinary occasions, and they would not therefore be frequently diverted from the discharge of their usual duties. On special occasions they would be able to exercise a predominant influence. It would be essential to the proper working of the proposed system, that all the Commissioners should have full and sufficient notice of the agenda at the next Board meeting, and that they should each be supplied with a copy of the minutes, so that they should be kept constantly informed of the nature of the business transacted. Care should be taken that contentious business should be reserved for meetings when a full attendance was found convenient.

For many years it was customary for the Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education to be appointed Parliamentary Charity Commissioner. Mr. Forster, however, set the example of declining to attend the Board meetings, on the ground that he was liable to be out-voted, and that he could not on that ground accept responsibility for the decisions which were formed. The plan now suggested would give a predominant

voice to representatives of the Education Department, and would not be open, therefore, to the objections which presented themselves to Mr. Forster's mind. It would increase the responsibility of the Commission to Parliament. It would prevent educational or quasi-educational questions, other than those which are dealt with under the Endowed Schools Acts, from being treated in a spirit of antagonism to the department which is strictly concerned. At the same time it would preserve unimpaired the separate existence of the Commission, would keep the staff distinct, and would not interfere with the regular and efficient discharge of their multifarious duties.

November 26, 1894. FRANCIS SEYMOUR STEVENSON.

Memorandum by Mr. A. F. Leach, Assistant Charity Commissioner, on the History of Endowed Schools.

Purport of the Memorandum.

This Memorandum is designed to show, first, that the antiquity of the origin of our chief secondary schools is far higher than is usually supposed; and, secondly, that the ascertainment of the true origin is a matter of practical importance.

Endowed schools in cathedral and collegiate churches before the Conquest.

The object of endowments for schools has varied greatly in the course of the centuries. The first schools in England grew up before the days of history as part and parcel of the chief collegiate churches, cathedral and other. When we get to detailed evidence we find one of the earliest and principal officers, at first known as the schoolmaster, afterwards as the chancellor, being told off to teach, or, in later times, to superintend teaching and the grammar school, just as another, the precentor, was to lead the singing, and superintend the choir and choir—or song-school, and a third, the treasurer, to have the charge of the implements and apparatus of the services. The first separable school endowments were merely assignments of a specific part of the general endowment for the support of the chancellor, or his deputy, the grammar school master. These assignments were in some cases made before the Conquest, in others they followed it. So intimate, throughout the middle ages, was the connexion in men's minds between church endowments and school endowments, that when, so late as the latter end of the 14th century, William of Wykeham took the new departure of making a school an independent object of a foundation, and endeavoured to do for schoolboys and education what hitherto had been done for the clergy and religion, he automatically established at Winchester a collegiate church.

Winchester College, 1387, a collegiate church.

Winchester College was differentiated from other collegiate churches only by the fact that masters and boys were included as the chief members of the foundation as well as grown priests, and education was made the first object, and worship and the

founders' soul the secondary objects of it, instead of *vice versâ*. Similar colleges continued to be established right up to the opening of the Reformation. In all, the professed object was to study grammar, "the key to all sciences," in order to fit people for the priesthood. All, like the cathedral schools themselves, served, not only the members of the church and college, but the public at large, and were as often called the school of the town as the school of the church, *e.g.*, the titles York Grammar School and the School of the City of York alternate with those of S. Peter's School and the Cathedral Grammar School.

Free schools.

Winchester was the first of the great free schools—free in the sense of gratuitous. It would be instructive to trace how it came about that schoolmasters (like the clergy in general) had established the right to demand and receive fees for the performance of the duties for which they were endowed, and so made free schools a necessity. That the necessity was felt is clear from the creation, dating from at least 150 years before the Reformation (from which they are commonly supposed to date), of a long series of free grammar schools. These, even when founded by laymen simply as schools, were still attached to churches and chapels, and schoolmasters were endowed as clerical functionaries. In the 15th century, however, though clerics, they were by no means necessarily in holy orders. Three successive headmasters of York Cathedral School, from 1426 to 1486, are known to have been married men, and therefore not priests or in holy orders. In 1503 the town council at Bridgnorth forbade any priest to teach school after the new free grammar schoolmaster came to the town. In 1535, at Winchester, where all the boys were by statute obliged to be tonsured, the headmaster is recorded as a layman. Dean Colet's first High Master at St. Paul's in 1510 was a layman.

Headmasters not always in holy orders.

Rarity of lay governors before the Reformation.

Yet only on the verge of the Reformation did a few exceptional founders, like Dean Colet, at St. Paul's, place schools entirely under lay control, and even he attached a chapel to the school, and appointed a chaplain to teach the rudiments. It was not till after the Reformation had begun, and in the last years of Henry VIII., that Wykeham's example was improved upon by the establishment of schools in which the schoolmaster was an independent corporation, like a vicar, as in Archbishop Holgate's three schools in Yorkshire, or that a school was placed under an independent lay corporation existing *ad hoc* as the "governors of the possessions and revenues" of a free grammar school. The step once taken, endowments flowed to the establishment or augmentation of these free schools. But it was not very long before (as the stipends of the free school schoolmasters became insufficient through the change in the value of money) the fee system again superseded the free system.

Concurrently, as the demand for education spread, and education began to be regarded as not necessarily confined to the classics, we can trace the differentiation of schools between classes in society and subjects taught. As early as 1484, Archbishop Rotherham, at his Jesus College of Rotherham, provided in addition to a grammar school and song school, the first known writing school, with a fellow, as a master to teach "gratuitously "the art of writing and reckoning" to the "many youths "endowed with natural capacity, who do not attain to the "dignity and height of the priesthood, but are fitted rather for "the mechanical arts and other worldly affairs." In 1512, Colet directs the chaplain of St. Paul's School to teach in the vestry the rudiments of religion and literature to small boys before they are admitted to the first or lowest form in the school itself. The statutes of Manchester, in 1525, ordered the high master to appoint a pupil-teacher to teach "in one end of the "school 'all infants' that come to learn their A.B.C. and "primer." It began to be common in Edward VI.'s time to establish an usher to teach the "petits" to read and write and cast accounts. Yet, at Bungay, as late as 1592, "writing and casting accounts" were relegated to Saturdays and half-holidays. In the 17th century the grammar school, or the Latin school, as it was sometimes called, began to be separated from the writing school or the English school, in buildings as well as masters. But it was not until the end of the 17th and beginning of the 18th century that entirely distinct foundations arose for "modern" subjects, such as the Mathematical School at Rochester in 1701.

Modern subjects: Rotherham Writing School, 1484.

Rochester Mathematical School, 1701.

This was the era of "Blue Coat" schools, commonly founded by subscription, and now often among the richer educational foundations, to do the work now done by the poor law unions and schools in connexion with them, or the industrial schools. They were boarding schools founded to "set the poor on work."

Here and there in the same period elementary schools for the poor began to be founded, but they were few and far between. It was not till late in the 18th century that they became common. With the invention of the Lancasterian system and the creation of the National Society the demand for them became general, and then universal. Now it has ended, as in the case of charities for roads and bridges and almshouses before, in the supersession of voluntary benevolence and individual effort by State and municipal action, with compulsory rates and taxes. The ebb of the tide has thus left many endowments stranded for want of real objects, doing inefficiently and expensively, what would be more efficiently and cheaply done without them.

Elementary schools.

From the accession of George I. until about 1845, when the establishment of Cheltenham and Marlborough Colleges marked a new era, the foundation of grammar schools or secondary schools in general had practically ceased. Latin and grammar

continue to be nominally mentioned in foundation documents, but it is generally clear from the strong insistence on provision for the poor, and the preference for elementary subjects, what the real intentions of the founders were.

Degradation of grammar schools.

In the latter part of that time not only were few new secondary schools created, but large numbers of those which existed were degraded into elementary schools, and those which remained as secondary schools barely maintained a half-starved existence. The blame of that state of things must be divided between the Court of Chancery, which, under the reactionary influence of Lord Eldon, laid down, in defiance of history, that grammar schools were intended only to teach grammar—that is, Latin and Greek grammar—and the trustees, who, aided and abetted by the Court, preferred to see the schools half deserted rather than to admit dissenters on the governing bodies, or to let their children into the schools, unless they would submit to imbibe Church of England doctrines and formulas.

The Victorian era. Proprietary schools.

The new or Victorian era of school foundations was inaugurated by the formation of Proprietary schools, by associations for education and for profit.

The older Proprietary schools have mostly become defunct, and their buildings in many cases, as at Sheffield and York, afford new and enlarged homes for the resuscitated grammar schools; while some few have, like Cheltenham and Rossall, been developed into great public schools, with the buildings, presented by the proprietors, by way of endowment. The proprietary system, in a modified form, is now applied by the Public Day Schools' Company and the Church Schools' Company to meet, with signal success, the demand for secondary education for girls which the pious founder had over-looked. The Woodard Schools, like Lancing and Hurstpierpoint, from a religio-commercial point of view, the county schools, like Cranleigh, on a self-supporting basis, manage to flourish, without other endowments than their sites and buildings, as cheap boarding schools.

Diversion of obsolete charities to secondary schools.

With a few striking exceptions, such as the Hymers College (so-called) at Hull, there has scarcely been an endowed secondary school, in the strict sense, newly founded during the Victorian era. The Court of Chancery, indeed, released from Eldonian principles, began, about the same time as the foundation of Marlborough College, the practice (to which emphatic sanction was given by Parliament in the Endowed Schools Act, 1869) of diverting dole and other charities thought to be obsolete, useless, excessive, or harmful, to the establishment of secondary schools; such as was the foundation school at Beverley, now consolidated with the grammar school. Under the Endowed Schools Acts numerous new secondary schools, particularly for girls, have been founded out of old grammar school or other educational endowments. The City of London School was founded by the City Corporation out of John Carpenter's educational bequest in the 15th century. There

are several trade and company schools, such as the Commercial Travellers' School, and the like, supported mainly by fees and voluntary subscriptions.

Of new endowed schools, properly speaking, there has been an almost absolute dearth. Considerable new endowments have, indeed, been given for the promotion of Secondary Education, but they have almost invariably been for the augmentation of existing schools by new buildings, or for prizes, scholarships, and exhibitions, not for the maintenance of new schools.

The pious founder, in the sense of William of Wykeham and Sir Andrew Judd, was rapidly tending to become an extinct species. Since the Local Taxation Act, 1890, and the application of the "beer-money" to technical education, which, as defined by the Technical Instruction Act, includes every subject now usually taught in a secondary school except Latin and Greek, he may be pronounced extinct.

The pious founder of schools defunct.

The bulk of the provision for Secondary Education arises therefore from the same foundations as it did 200 years ago. The large majority, and for the most part the largest, of these foundations date, it will be seen, not from the 17th or even the 16th century, but from the 15th and the 14th, or earlier still, from the days before English civilisation was set back a hundred years by the Norman Conquest.

It is to the history of these schools that this paper is devoted.

The old schools still the most important.

In the first volume of the Report of the Schools Inquiry Commission is a list of "Endowed Grammar and other Secondary "Schools arranged in the Chronological Order of their Estab- "lishment." The list contains 35 schools founded before the reign of Henry VIII., 63 founded in the reign of Henry VIII., 51 in the reign of Edward VI., 19 in the reign of Mary, 138 under Elizabeth, 83 under James I.; 389 in all. Of these, Henry VIII. himself is credited with the foundation of 18, Edward VI. with 27, Mary or Philip and Mary with 5, Elizabeth with 26, and James I. with 4.

The chronological list in Schools Inquiry Commission Report.

For the ascertainment of the true date of the establishment of any of these schools this list is extremely misleading. For instance, the first on the list is Carlisle Grammar School. Of this, it is stated that the founder was William II., date of foundation that of the Convent of the Order of S. Augustine; while under the heading, "Purpose of Original Foundation," it is said:—"According to a school register in the Chapter Library, a "school was founded in Carlisle by St. Cuthbert, in 686, but "was extinguished in 800. Again established by William "Rufus to be taught by one of the monks of the convent founded "by him. Re-established by Henry VIII. for instruction of "all boys who flock to it to learn grammar." We need not, perhaps, pause to inquire as to the reputed foundation, in 686, which rests on a statement of Symeon of Durham, writing nearly 500 years after the event. Nor, perhaps, is it worth insisting

Carlisle Cathedral School.

on the fact that while alleged to have been founded "of the Order "of S. Augustine" by William Rufus, that Order was unknown in England till after Rufus' death, and that the school could not have been "taught by a monk of the convent," because the convent was inhabited, not by monks, but by canons. But if Carlisle School, the present legal foundation of which dates from Henry VIII., is, in virtue of being part of the foundation of the monastery which he suppressed, to be promoted to the reign of William II., or, even with more accuracy, to that of Henry I., why are not similar considerations applied to the other schools attached to the "cathedrals of the new foundation"? Why are not they also assigned to the date of the original foundation of their respective monasteries, instead of only being reckoned as founded in 1541 by Henry VIII.? Yet under that year are reckoned all the schools of the cathedrals "of the new foundation," Canterbury, Chester, Durham, Ely, Gloucester, Peterborough, Rochester, Worcester.

Derby Grammar School.

Similar remarks apply to the school which is second on the list, that of Derby. The entry as to this is, "Founder, Walter "Durdant, Bishop of Lichfield, circa 1160," which is the date of "reputed foundation." "Purpose of original foundation not "ascertained. Re-established by charter of Queen Mary, 1554, "as a free grammar school for the education of boys and "youths in the town of Derby." The Chartulary of Darley Abbey supplies us with a more exact date for the foundation of that school. Sometime between 1149 and 1159 (not, as stated, 1160, for he died in 1159) Walter Durdant, Bishop of Chester (*sic*) confirms to St. Helen's Abbey, which had originally been in Derby itself, and was *temp.* Henry II. moved to a new site in the then suburb called Darley, now a part of the town, and called St. Mary's, amongst other property "the school of Derby "of the gift of William of the April-beard and mine." The bishop only seems to have granted the right to keep the school. At least a subsequent deed of Walkelin, a minter or moneyer (monetarius) of Derby, and Goda his wife, granted "an acre on the "brook (caapa),* which I, Goda, bought, and the messuage wherein "we dwell, which I, Walkelin, bought of William Cusin and "Helga, with all the buildings thereon, on this disposition, viz., "that the hall should be for a school of clerks, and the chambers "(thalami) for the inn (hospitium) of the master and scholars "for ever; so that neither the abbot nor the master, nor any-"one else may take anything for letting the house." Of the other property conveyed, the profits of a furnace were to go to the canons' Hospital for the poor, and the rest to the canons themselves. They were, therefore, only trustees of the school. The gift was confirmed by Bishop Richard (1161-1182), together with, "of the gift of Bishop Walter my predecessor *and* "*mine*, the school of Derby." The school was apparently in the churchyard of St. Peter's, Derby, the grant of which church by William the Priest, Dean of Derby, to the abbey was also

* Du Cange's Glossary gives capa, as = rivulus.

confirmed by Durdant's deed. Its Marian building is still standing and was used for the school till about 1860, when the school was removed to its present site, which was, oddly enough, part of the possessions of the very St. Helen's Abbey to which it was legally attached by the bishop.

Ripon Grammar School.

But if Derby is to be credited as of the date of the deed of Bishop Durdant, why is not Ripon Grammar School to be reckoned as of the date of the original foundation of Ripon Minster, which was a college of secular canons, far older than any house of regular or Augustinian canons, and dates certainly far back before the Norman Conquest, and by tradition to King Athelstane? To it the school was attached, no doubt, from the earliest times, being mentioned in the earliest extant documents relating to it, in which it would appear. Indeed, the claim of Ripon is far better than that of Derby, as the minster was not suppressed until the reign of Edward VI., and the school was continued by the same Commissioners who suppressed the college. Yet Ripon is only put down as founded by Philip and Mary in 1535.

So, too, Penrith School is entered under date 1395, the date of the gift of the founder, William Strickland, Bishop of Carlisle, "for the priest of a chantry to instruct the youth in grammar "and music; re-established by Queen Elizabeth by letters "patent, 1564, as a Free Grammar School, with master and "under-master for instruction of youth." If one school kept by a chantry priest is to be dated from its original foundation, why are not then scores of others re-founded, or purporting to be re-founded, by Elizabeth or Mary, Edward VI., or Henry VIII., to be treated on the same footing?

Ashburton Grammar School, 1314.

Ashburton School, Devon, which has continued on the same site and in part in the same buildings, ever since it was built by Bishop Stapledon in 1314, for a chantry priest of his foundation, is only reckoned under the date of 1593. Walsall is put down as only founded in 1554, when Queen Mary gave letters patent for it, though it had been already kept by a chantry priest attached to the Guild there long before the Reformation, and was specifically continued, on the dissolution of chantries, by Edward VI.'s Commissioners. Again, Stratford-on-Avon is reputed as a foundation of Edward VI. only, whereas it is mentioned as early as 1402 in the records of the Guild, the revenues of which Edward VI. sold back again to the town wherewith to maintain the school. King's Lynn Grammar School is reckoned to Thomas Thoresby in 1520, but the Guild of Young Scholars in King's Lynn appears in the Guild Returns in Richard II.'s reign as of the year 1383, and a connexion can seemingly be traced between the school and the chantry in the charnel, which is mentioned as early as 1339, and belonged to the Trinity Guild, part of the possessions of which, applicable to the school, are in the possession of the Corporation.

S. Peter's School, York, 73.

Perhaps the most remarkable case is that of S. Peter, or the Cathedral School at York, which is specifically described by its

master, Alcuin, in 780, as it existed before 736, which has a traceable history from 1075 and a separate endowment from 1181, and yet is reckoned as a creation of the dean and chapter in 1557, and was reported to the Schools Inquiry Commission as endowed by James I., on the strength of a charter which bears on its face that it is one of confirmation.

The truth is that, with few exceptions, the schools referred to as founded by or under Henry VIII. and his family, and a considerable number of those founded under James I., were merely continuations, re-foundations, or augmentations of previously existing schools, kept by or in connexion with cathedral and collegiate churches, hospitals, chantries, guilds, and in some few instances, monasteries, before the great revolution which began in 1536.

Carlisle the youngest of the old cathedral schools.

This being so, it is a curious misfortune indeed, which has made the compiler of the chronological list place, as the oldest school in England, that which was maintained in connexion with the youngest of the pre-reformation cathedral churches. Carlisle did not become a bishop's see till the reign of Henry II.; whereas the school of Canterbury is mentioned by Bede as it was in 669, that of York is fully described by Alcuin as it was in 780; and the schools of S. Paul's, Hereford, and Lichfield Cathedrals, all of which existed centuries before the Conquest, are traceable as far back as the cathedral records extend; while the schools of Salisbury and Lincoln are expressly provided for in the foundation documents of those cathedrals in 1090 and 1091 respectively. The schools of the Welsh Cathedrals, St. David's, St. Asaph, and so forth, may, perhaps, claim an even higher antiquity. Nor do the schools attached to the ancient collegiate churches, which were not cathedrals, lag far behind in age. Their history is not always accessible, and where it is accessible, has been but little studied. But whenever any ancient books of evidences, or documents, chartularies, chapter act books, or the like exist, there the school is traceable; and, there is no doubt that where the college existed before the Conquest, there also the school existed. For instance, the school kept by the collegiate church of S. Mary's, at Warwick, is the direct lineal ancestor of the present Warwick Grammar School. In 1123, the two collegiate churches of S. Mary's in the town, and All Saints' in the castle, of Warwick were consolidated by the Norman Earl Roger, the canons of All Saints' being transferred to S. Mary's. By a deed of the same year, preserved in the chartulary of S. Mary's, now at the Record Office, the earl purported to grant, but seemingly confirmed, to the church "the school of the church, that the service of God therein might "be amended by the flocking of scholars thereto." In another document of the same year, dating before the consolidation, a writ of King Henry I., addressed to the Bishops of Worcester and Chester (*i.e.*, Coventry and Lichfield) and Earl Roger, and all the barons of Warwickshire, directs that All Saints' Church

Warwick Grammar School, *temp.* Edward the Confessor.

" shall have all its customs and trial by ordeal of iron and " water *as they had them in the time of King Edward*, and its " school *in like manner*," thus clearly showing the existence of the school, at least, in the reign of Edward the Confessor. On the consolidation of the two churches, among the items of property confirmed to S. Mary's is the "School of Warwick." Whether each collegiate church kept a separate school before the consolidation is not quite clear. But, however that may be, the pedigree of the school from the school kept by All Saints', in the days of Edward the Confessor, is clear. This school can be traced up to the surrender of the college to Henry VIII., and was re-founded by his charter in 1545 as the King's New School of Warwick, with a large slice of the college endowment.

Approximate list of earliest grammar schools.

To place the original foundation of these schools in strict chronological order *inter se* is difficult, and in most cases impossible. We can establish a primacy in Canterbury and York, and assign a competing antiquity to S. Paul's and Lichfield, a slightly lower place to Hereford, Ripon, Southwell, and Beverley; and below them probably to Warwick, Wolverhampton, Stafford, and as may be suspected, but cannot be proved, Shrewsbury. A distinctly later, but still pre-Conquest origin must be given to Exeter and Wells.

In the first flight after the Conquest would come Chichester, Salisbury, Lincoln, and Worcester Cathedral Schools, the latter a boarding school for 12 boys attributed to the last English Bishop, S. Wulstan. A little later would come Carlisle and Derby, Ely and Bury St. Edmund's, and others founded by the heads of, and in more or less connexion with, monasteries and convents, but not apparently maintained by them, and almost certainly not taught by their members, but by outsiders.

Thirteenth century grammar schools.

At a later date, in the middle of the 13th century, a new crop of school creations arose in connexion with the new crop of collegiate churches or colleges of secular clergy, the creation of which had practically ceased at the Conquest, but was resumed about the year 1250, and continued up to the dissolution in the reign of Edward VI. These sprang up sporadically, according as bishops on their manors, kings and great men near their castles, town corporations in the town or guild churches, and successful churchmen in their native places happened to found them. Bishop Auckland in Durham, founded in 1265, Howden* in the East Riding of Yorkshire, of the same date, Crediton and Ottery St. Mary's in Devonshire, and at a later date Ledbury* in Herefordshire, Winchester College, Eton College, the Jesus College at Rotherham, Chicheley's College at Higham Ferrers, Magdalen College, Oxford, are some of the collegiate churches of this era whose schools still survive.

Chantry grammar schools.

About the same time, too, began to spring up the chantry schools and the hospital schools. A chantry was an endowment

* These are entered in the Schools Inquiry Report as of " Date unknown."

given by an individual founder or a society to maintain a priest or priests to chant or sing services and masses for his, her, or their souls. At first, these priests were generally attached to larger churches wherein they served at some particular altar. In St. Paul's and York Cathedrals, respectively, there were some 50 of them. At town churches, like Newark, Hull, and Nottingham, there were a dozen or so, making those churches in effect collegiate. After a time they began to be established in small towns or villages, attached to parish churches to assist the parish priest, serving at altars in the church itself or in some chapels built on to the church, sometimes they are placed as chaplains to independent chapels of ease, especially when the parish was large; sometimes as tenants of mere private chapels and oratories. In the larger churches, where there was no special endowment attached to the grammar school, but it was merely maintained out of the general revenues of the church, it became customary, either by way of augmentation of the endowment or to ease the general revenue, to appoint one of the chantry priests to be the grammar schoolmaster. Thus at Southwell, in 1504, a certain rich chantry falling vacant, the next senior chantry priest who had a claim to the promotion was asked by the chapter, and agreed, to waive his claim in order that the chapter might appoint to it one who was fit to act as teacher of the grammar school, and who took oath to do so. This practice has led, as in the case of Stafford, some of the grammar schools to be regarded as chantry schools, when they were really the schools of the collegiate church at large. In the same way, after the Reformation down to the Act of 1848, which provided for the suppression of Southwell College, the grammar school master's fixed stipend being only some 20*l.* a year, to secure him a proper salary, he was always appointed a vicar choral as well.

Schools attached to hospitals.

The schools attached to hospitals did not differ in essence from these chantry schools. It was a common practice of ancient founders to place schools in connexion with hospitals, which were rather in the nature of almshouses or refuges for the poor than of shelters for the sick. Thus, at St. Cross by Winchester, where 100 poor men were daily fed in the Hundred-men's Hall on porridge ladled out of the Hundred-men's-pot with the Hundred-men's-ladle, it was stated at an inquiry instituted by William of Wykeham, in 1373, that 13 poor scholars of the Great or High School of Winchester (it was before the foundation of Winchester College) were daily included amongst the Hundred-men. At Reading a disused lepers' hospital maintained by Reading Abbey was, at Henry VII.'s instance, converted into a school.

I am inclined to think that the chief reason for placing schools in connexion with hospitals was to evade a provision of the Canon Law. The commonest method of supporting colleges and schools, as of monasteries, hospitals, and other ecclesiastical

foundations, was to endow them with churches, the college or school taking all the profits of the church, the rent of glebe, great tithes, and offerings, except a small fixed stipend assigned to the deputy or vicar who actually served the cure. But the Canon Law, and in England particularly, the constitutions of the Legates Otho and Ottobon in the 13th century, absolutely prohibited this appropriation of churches, except when the appropriation was for the benefit of the poor. The net result of the law was only that a Papal Bull had to be obtained to sanction the appropriation, and that a clause had to be inserted putting forward the poverty or starvation of the body to which it was appropriated, as a reason for the appropriation. A convenient method was to appropriate the church directly to the master or brethren of a hospital or almshouse for the poor. Accordingly we find this done in the case of Exeter when the boarding school of Bishop Stapledon's foundation was placed in the hospital of S. John under the governance of the master. The Bablake Grammar School at Coventry was placed in the Bablake Hospital. The Ewelme Grammar School was attached to the Ewelme Almshouse on its original foundation by De la Pole in 1437. At Eton, in 1440, almshouses for the poor were part of the foundation. Another way of evading the difficulty was to do as William of Wykeham did, and describe his scholars as poor clerks, their poverty being mostly of a relative kind.

Fifteenth century grammar schools.

The great era of these chantry and hospital schools was the 15th and the early part of the 16th century; and at no time did the foundation of such schools proceed with greater vigour than immediately before the Reformation. Bishop Fox is said to have founded* no less than three such schools at Grantham, close to which he was born, at Taunton, and at Basingstoke. Then, too, began the era of foundations by successful London citizens. Sir Edmond Shaw founded Stockport School in 1487, Sir James Percival founded one at Macclesfield in 1502, and his wife at Launceston; Sir Stephen Jenyns augmented Wolverhampton School in 1515. Lady Mellers endowed Nottingham School in honour of her husband, Sir Richard Mellers, in 1512, and converted into a Free School what had existed at least from before 1382 as the Nottingham Grammar School.

To determine the exact date of all these endowments, and also which of them were original foundations, and not merely enlargements or alterations of previous schools, requires a searching investigation in each case which is beyond the capacity

* But he did not found any of them. His only connexion with Basingstoke School seems to be that, when Bishop of Winchester in 1524, he joined in a petition for license in mortmain to place the Chapel and Guild of the Holy Ghost which had existed from before 1244, on a legal basis. At Grantham he was one of the executors of Curtis, who had founded the school, and added a small endowment to it. At Taunton he seems to have built or helped to build a new school-house, but no endowment is traced to him.

of any single inquirer, at all events, unless he was able to devote a life-time to it.

Practical bearing of the history of schools.

II. Yet, as each case comes to be dealt with, it is of great practical importance that the true date of origin should be, as far as possible, ascertained. For the settlement of the true date of the establishment of any school is not, as may at the first blush be supposed, a matter of merely antiquarian or historical interest. It generally has, and always may have, an important bearing on practical politics with regard to schools at the present day.

Claims of cathedral schools under s. 27 Endowed Schools Act, 1869.

For instance, s. 27 of the Endowed Schools Act, 1869, provides that the Ecclesiastical Commissioners may out of their common fund make provision for augmentation of an educational endowment which "at the commencement of this Act forms or has "formed part of the endowment of any cathedral or collegiate "church." In the Bill as it passed the House of Commons, the word was "shall" and not "may," but by the House of Lords "shall" was turned into "may," with results not beneficial to cathedral schools. The Schools Inquiry Commissioners say that "the claim of these schools to an increased share in the cathedral "endowments has been put forward as one exactly measured by "the proportion of the original sums allotted to the whole "endowment. . . . The obligation, however, of maintaining "the schools and giving exhibitions at school as at the "university to the scholars is not affected by this. The schools ". . . are an integral portion of the establishment. This "appears to be true of all the schools in cathedrals of the new "foundation," *i.e.*, those which were monasteries before the Reformation, such as Canterbury, Durham, Gloucester, Peterborough, Carlisle itself, "and of some (*e.g.*, Hereford and, "perhaps, Lincoln), on the old foundation." This statement is too limited. The history of cathedrals of the old foundation had been very little studied at the date of this Report, and was very ill understood. There can be no doubt that a close investigation, conducted by a competent authority, would show that the schools were an integral part of the foundation in all cathedrals of the old foundation; not Hereford and Lincoln alone, but S. Paul's, Exeter, Wells, Salisbury, and Lichfield as well. The investigation of the case of Chichester showed the maintenance of a grammar school out of the cathedral endowment before the annexation of one of the prebends to it in 1498 (which procured it the name of the Prebendal School) and the continuance of payments for its support. In the case of York, St. Peter's School has been shown to have existed in 736, and to have had a continuous existence from 1075, evidenced in the minster and other records.

It is stated in the Schools Inquiry Commission's Report that St. Asaph's School is asserted not to be part of the cathedral at all, and that S. David's is only a choristers' school. But the

last is almost certainly a mistake, and the former is highly improbable. Giraldus Cambrensis was educated in the cathedral school of S. David's in the reign of Henry II. The very singular connexion between the Grammar School of St. Asaph and the four vicars there, who were formerly vicars choral, is highly suggestive of an intimate connexion between the school and the cathedral church.

So, as regards collegiate churches. At Southwell Minster, now a cathedral church, only two ancient books remain. They enable the school to be traced specifically from 1413 to the present time, and there are entries in the earlier of the two documents from which its existence may be inferred in the 13th century. The "may," however, unfortunately operated in this case, and this ancient school remains in undisputed possession of a magnificent endowment of 30*l.* a year only. I am not aware whether the case of Ripon Grammar School has been investigated from this point of view. The Memorials of Ripon Minster, edited by the Rev. J. T. Fowler for the Surtees Society, exhibit the school maintained out of the collegiate funds up to the Dissolution, and its continuance beyond it.

Claims of schools on Duchy of Lancaster, municipal corporations, &c.

Again, there are other cases in which, independently of special provision in the Endowed Schools Acts, the ancient history of schools has a material bearing on the interests of the present. For instance, take the case of Pontefract Grammar School, which appears to have existed as early as the 12th century. Its endowment consisted of a payment of some 15*l.* a year from the revenues of the Duchy of Lancaster, which represented approximately the full yearly value of the lands of a chantry in Pontefract, the priest of which, before the Dissolution, was the grammar school master, and of certain other chantry grammar schools in the neighbourhood consolidated with it, because the places were too small to maintain an efficient school themselves. The whole property of these chantries had accrued to the Duchy under the Chantries Act, and though the school was continued by the Commissioners appointed under that Act, it only received a sum equivalent to the net rental in the reign of Edward VI. This was raised to 30*l.* in the reign of George III. by his royal bounty, and afterwards to 50*l.* These facts being laid before the Duke of Rutland, when Chancellor of the Duchy, he advised the Queen to double the endowment, and thus enabled the school, which was in abeyance, to be re-opened. An augmentation being made by local effort, it is now a flourishing institution, supplying a long-felt want of Secondary Education, not in Pontefract alone, but in the whole district round.

Similarly municipal corporations, colleges in the universities, city companies, and the trustees of ancient towns, trusts, or charities, representing the ancient endowments of chantry grammar schools, have been favourably affected towards the grammar schools of their boroughs, or with which they were connected, by the demonstration of their ancient connexion with the schools and their possession of the endowments of the same.

Questions of apportionment between schools and other charities under s. 24 Endowed Schools Act, 1869.

The origin of schools has in like manner an important bearing on the questions which arise under section 24 of the Endowed Schools Act, 1869, when it has to be determined, in the numerous class of cases in which schools are mixed up with other charitable objects on the same foundation, how much of the common endowment should be assigned to the schools and other objects respectively.

Thus Huntingdon School appears to be still maintained in connexion with S. John's Hospital there, founded in the reign of Henry II. Similar questions would arise or have arisen at Ewelme, Basingstoke, Exeter, and other places. In all such cases a study of the ancient documents would probably shed considerable light on the question as to what the true share of the school ought to be, on settling the proportions between the educational and non-educational objects of the charity under a scheme.

Questions as to whether school is a denominational school, Endowed Schools Act, 1869, s. 19.

Another question of very wide application on which the history of a school becomes material arises under section 19 of the Endowed Schools Act, 1869. This affects not the property but the character of schools;—whether they are to be considered as denominational or not. The determination of this question affects the directions as to religious instruction in the school, the constitution or religious opinions of the governing body, and the conscience clauses to be inserted in the scheme. One of the most important objects of the Endowed Schools Acts was to vindicate the national, as opposed to the denominational, character of the old schools. Lord Eldon had laid it down in the strongest terms that every grammar school was to be considered a Church of England school. Even after Lord Cranworth's Act, and the practice of the Court of Chancery under it, had made considerable inroads upon that doctrine in particular cases, it was still the presumption of the law that religious instruction provided for in any foundation, and particularly one of so-called Royal Foundation by Edward VI., was a Church of England school. The Endowed Schools Act has exactly reversed the test. Under it, the method of ascertaining whether a school is exempted from the clauses required to be inserted in all cases which are not denominational, is to see whether "the express terms of the "original instrument of foundation," or of the statutes made by the founder, or under his authority within 50 years of his death, "required" the scholars "to learn, or to be instructed according "to the doctrines or formularies of a particular church," and whether that "requirement" was observed up to 1869. Consequently it becomes an important question what is "the original "instrument of foundation." It does not matter what subsequent benefactors have done; they may have doubled, trebled, or tenfold multiplied the value of the endowments; but, if the original founder did not specify any particular religious teaching, or if the original foundation document is lost or unascertained, or if the original requirement has not been observed, the

school cannot claim to be treated under section 19 of the Endowed Schools Act, 1869. *A fortiori*, if it is known that the original foundation prescribed instruction or observances proper to the unreformed Church of England and the Church of Rome, and improper to the Church of England as by law established, it would appear that the school is not to be treated as a Church of England school under that section.

When a school was a chantry school, a school, that is, kept by a chantry priest, who was directed to sing masses for the founder's soul, in which the scholars were to take part, or to teach the scholars to say prayers to the Virgin Mary, and to take part in processions which involve litanies to invoke the intercession of saints, it can hardly be maintained that such a school is one in which the founder directed instruction in accordance with the doctrines of the Church of England as by law established. Winchester College and Eton College are excluded from the Endowed Schools Acts; but if they were not, neither under those Acts, nor apart from them, could it be reasonably maintained that the schools were "Church" schools. The statutes of Eton are copied almost verbatim from those of Winchester, and both contain the most minute directions as to the participation of the scholars in obits and "masses satisfactory," and the invocation of saints, which have not been observed, and which it would have been illegal to observe, since the Act of Uniformity in the reign of Elizabeth.

What is true of Winchester College is true of all pre-Reformation schools of which we have the statutes, including even the foundations of reformers like Wolsey at Ipswich, or Colet at S. Paul's; and may be inferred as to the rest. Indeed, in the case of chantry schools, where, as a rule, we are not in possession of any documents other than the patent or license in mortmain to found it—and are fortunate if we possess that—it often, perhaps more often than not, happens that the deed says nothing about teaching school at all, and only directs the incumbent to say prayers or masses for the founder's soul. Yet the certificate on the Dissolution finds that it was founded to maintain a school. In other cases, on the other hand, it happens that the chantry certificate mentions no school, and the foundation deed reveals one.

In none of such cases would it appear to be possible to hold the school to be one the scholars of which are required to be instructed in the doctrines of the Church of England. The practices for which chantries were founded are branded as superstitious in the Act for chantries collegiate (1 Edward VI., c. 14). So far as the chantry school endowments were applicable to such practices they were vested in the Crown by the Act. The Act makes provision for the continuance of such chantries as were schools, by a commission to be appointed under it, and most of them were so continued. But it is obvious

that the necessary disuse of the superstitious practices, whether they were, strictly speaking, illegal or not, has caused a breach of observance, which is fatal to the contention that the schools are, by foundation and practice, the two co-essential requisites, denominational.

Distinction between historical and legal origin.

It is true that, in regard to many of these points depending on the history of schools, a distinction has to be drawn between legal foundation and historical origin, between legal rights and moral claims. For instance, in regard to Derby Grammar School it would appear likely (though it cannot be said with certainty without a full consideration of the documents of the time) that when the abbot and canons of Darley surrendered their convent and all its possessions to Henry VIII., the school, being among those possessions, came to the Crown, and was dissolved with the dissolution of the house, confirmed, as that was, by Act of Parliament. If so, unless perhaps it can be shown that the school was a going concern in the interim, its legal foundation must be taken to date rather from the grant of the school to the corporation by Philip and Mary than from Bishop Durdant's confirmation in Henry II.'s reign. So, again, Warwick Collegiate Church was surrendered to Henry VIII., and such surrender, with others, was confirmed by the Chantries Acts of Henry VIII. and Edward VI. The legal origin of the present school must, therefore, be taken to be the new grant of Henry VIII. establishing the King's New School; especially as in this case the school does not appear to have had any separate endowment beyond its school buildings, but to have simply been maintained out of the general revenues of the church. The same is true of all grammar schools, if any, that were maintained out of the revenues of "religious" houses strictly so called, that is, monasteries; and also of those few collegiate churches and chantries which were surrendered to Henry VIII. Their legal foundation, as distinct from their historical origin, must date from the new grant of Henry or his successors.

Effect of the Chantries Act, 1 Edward VI., c. 14.

Quite different is the case with the great majority of schools which were attached to collegiate churches, chantries, and guilds. These churches, chantries, and guilds were not dissolved, as is commonly but wrongly supposed, at the same time with the monasteries, but continued until they were confiscated some 10 years later, in the first year of Edward VI. as from Easter 1548, by the Chantries Act. Nor is it the case with such collegiate churches as that of Southwell Minster. This was, exceptionally, surrendered to Henry VIII., 12th August 1540, and the school went with it. But in 1543, by Act of Parliament, it was re-established, it being enacted that—

"the said college and church collegiate of Southwell shall stand and be "in his whole perfect and essential estate in all degrees and in such "manner and form to all intents and purposes as it was or stood the "first day of June" 1540, "or at any time before and shall remain, "continue, and be for ever a perfect body corporate by the name of"

and so on, setting out the old name. By a further clause, "the "King, his heirs and successors, be and shall be founders," King Edgar being the then reputed founder; but this, as appears in the clause, was only for the purpose of getting the patronage of the prebends into the Crown instead of the Archbishopric of York. At Southwell, therefore, there is no doubt that the school was restored as if it had never been abolished, and may therefore, unlike Warwick, reckon its legal as well as its historic title from King Edgar, or other unknown founder, in Old English times.

In a somewhat similar way, the chantry schools were abolished and re-established in a breath; or, perhaps, it would be more exact to say, that their endowments were confiscated, while the schools were continued, by the same Act. The Act recited the evils arising from

"vain opinions of purgatory and masses satisfactory to be done for "them which be departed; the which doctrines and vain opinion by "nothing more is maintained and upholden than by the abuse of chan- "tries . . . and . . . that the alteration, change, and amendment "of the same, and converting to good and godly uses as in erecting of "grammar schools for the education of youth"

could best be done by the King in Council. It, therefore, vested in the Crown from Easter next

"all colleges, free chapels, and chantries . . . and their possessions "... other than such as by the King's Commission in form "herein-after mentioned shall be altered, transposed, or changed," and "all payments by corporations, guilds, fraternities, companies, or "fellowships of mysteries . . . towards the finding of any priests, and "all guilds and fraternities"

themselves, but not municipal corporations, companies, or fellowships of mysteries. A Commission under the Great Seal was to issue under which the Commissioners, or any two of them, were to have "full power to assign, and

"*shall appoint* in every place where guild, fraternity, the priest or "incumbent of any chantry in esse," on 1 November 1547 "by the "foundation, ordinance, or the first institution thereof should or ought "to have kept and so hath since Michaelmas 1546 a grammar school, "lands, and other hereditaments of every such, to *remain and continue* "in succession for ever."

The Commission was duly issued, and Sir Walter Mildmay and Robert Kelway, in exercise of the power conferred on any two Commissioners, made orders accordingly for the continuance of schools. Unfortunately they did not assign lands, but "other hereditaments," namely, annuities equivalent to the net annual value of the chantry lands, which annuities being of amounts generally not exceeding 12*l.*, though of quite adequate value then, unfortunately came to be inconsiderable, as money depreciated in value. Being charged on the Crown lands in each county and payable from the Treasury, or in the case of lands in the Duchy of Lancaster by theDuchy officials, too often the annuities fell into arrear and have been disputed. As these orders are

the legal evidence and recognition of the origin of most historic schools a specimen is given. It runs:—

"We, Sir Walter Mildmay, Kt., and Robert Kelway, Esq., Commissioners appointed by the King's Majesty's Commission under the Great Seal of England bearing date the 20th June last past, touching order to be taken for the maintenance and continuance of schools . . .

"To the auditor and receiver of the revenues of the Court of Augmentation and revenues of the King's Majesty's Crown in the county of Northumberland . . . Greeting. Forasmuch as it appeareth by the certificate of the particular surveyor of lands of the said court in the said county that . . . a grammar school hath been continually kept in Alnwick in the said county with the revenues of lands and tenements granted and appointed to the finding of two priests there. And that the schoolmaster there hath had for his stipend and wages yearly iiij^{li}. 20*d*., which school is very meet and necessary to be continued. We, therefore, the said Commissioners, by virtue and authority of the said Commission have assigned and appointed that the said grammar school shall continue. And that Thomas Thompson, schoolmaster there, shall have and enjoy the room of schoolmaster there and shall have for his wages yearly 4*l*. 20*d*. And we . . . do require you . . . that of such the King's money and revenues as shall from time to time remain in your hands you do content and pay yearly from Easter last past forthward the said several sums of money and wages before mentioned to the persons before rehearsed, *and to such other person and persons as shall have and enjoy the said room and places of the same persons*, until such time as further or other order shall be taken for the same. And this warrant shall be to you . . . sufficient discharge . . .

"Given the 20th July in the 2nd year of . . . Edward the Sixth . . ."

In the Duchy, whose lands chiefly lay in Lancashire and Yorkshire, the certificate was precisely in the same form, except that it was addressed to the Chancellor of the Duchy, and the payments were charged on the Duchy revenues, instead of on the Crown lands in a particular county. Scores of payments still continued to be made by the Treasury under this authority until they were quite recently redeemed. They are still paid by the Duchy in many cases, though in some, for no good reason, they are in abeyance, merely because they had been allowed by neglectful governors, or schoolmasters ignorant of their rights, to fall in arrear.

It is clear that in all these cases the school was never abolished but continued, and its legal as well as its historic title must be dated from before the dissolution of chantries. Nor does it make any difference that, in some cases, the same schools were further endowed out of chantry or college lands afterwards, as was the case with Walsall under Queen Mary, or Pontefract under George III., and with private benefactions, as were Wakefield and Market Bosworth under Queen Elizabeth. The old continued school was never abolished, but enlarged, or included in the enlarged school; and, in spite of the grandiloquence of the language in which the sovereign was spoken of as new founder, must be taken to be an old foundation, prior, at all events, to Edward VI. The actual date has to be ascertained independently of the chantry certificates, which unfortunately, hardly ever give one. Alnwick is fortunate in having found in Mr. Tate a local historian who took

an interest in the school, and has printed the actual foundation deed by an Earl Percy, and a relation of his known as William of Alnwick, who was Bishop of Lincoln, in 1448. As a rule, the local historian and the local antiquary have been content to accept any fable or first-blush evidence as to the origin of the grammar school, if they did not pass it by on the other side altogether.

Even with the aid of the lists of grammar schools continued under the Chantries Act, we are only very partially informed as to the schools which existed before the Act. We learn, indeed, that Bromsgrove, Chipping Norton, King's Norton, Lichfield, Louth, Morpeth, Pontefract, Rock, Royston, Stafford, Towcester, Wisbeach were not founded, as reported, by or under Edward VI., but were plundered in his time by being deprived of the lands and revenues of the chantries and guilds which formerly maintained them. We find that Oundle and Walsall were not founded by Queen Mary, nor Bedale, Bromyard, Bodmin, Leyland, Netherby, Normanton (Yorkshire), or Penrhyn under Elizabeth, nor Cawthorn (Yorkshire), Houghton (Beds), or Preston (Lancashire) under James I. We can lift Alnwick from 1649 to 1448, Wem from 1651 to before 1548; and we learn that Cannock and Trowbridge had grammar schools before 1727 and 1861 respectively. We can take Ledbury, Northallerton, Saint Michael-upon-Wyre, Saltash from the class of unknown, and put them in a class of "before 1548." We can insert in the same class Pickering Grammar School, in Yorkshire, a fairly flourishing institution, with an endowment of appreciable amount, which the Schools Inquiry Commission overlooked altogether. But these are only 32 altogether, which undergo promotion.

It will be noticed that the names are taken from only a very few counties, some ten or a dozen at most. Such counties as Hampshire, Devonshire, the West and East Ridings of Yorkshire (except as to places in the Duchy of Lancaster), do not appear at all. The orders for the other counties have been lost, or at least not found. Even the counties over which we have the orders do not include nearly all the schools which were reported to exist in the chantry certificates, on which the orders should have been founded; nor nearly all the schools which, it is known, were continued and for which payments were made. On the other hand, in some cases the chantry certificates themselves do not give any schools, as, *e.g.*, the West Riding of Yorkshire, and in others give only a few. The fulness of the returns varied with the idiosyncrasies of the Commissioners in the various counties. A great deal of investigation still remains to be done before the list of schools existing before the Chantries Act can be completed, and still more before their exact origin can be ascertained.

ARTHUR F. LEACH.

Memorandum on the Training of Teachers, by J. G. Fitch, Esq., LL.D.

The training colleges of England.

(1.) The importance of giving definite professional preparation to teachers has long been fully recognised in the sphere of *elementary* education. From the foundation of the two great societies—the National Society and the British and Foreign School Society in 1811 and in 1808 respectively — persons desiring to become teachers in National or British schools were received at the Sanctuary in Westminster or at the Borough Road to "learn the system" by a few months' attendance at the Model Schools: the Home and Colonial School Society established its training school in 1836: and before any public grants were made for the purpose in England, Dr. J. Phillips Kay, afterwards better known as Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth, had, by private effort and in conjunction with Mr. Carleton Tuffnell, succeeded in establishing a training school at Battersea. In 1839, when, under Lord Melbourne's Government, a Committee of the Privy Council was appointed to administer such funds as might be voted by Parliament for public education, among the first proposals made by that Committee, at the suggestion of its secretary, Dr. Kay, was one for the establishment of a State normal institution for the training of teachers. This proposal was not adopted by the Legislature, but encouragement was given to religious and voluntary bodies, and by 1846, when the first Minutes of Council were issued, nine training institutions, including Whitelands, Warrington, and St. Mark's, Chelsea, had been established. Within the ten subsequent years many diocesan colleges, the Wesleyan Training College at Westminster and the Roman Catholic College at Liverpool, were added to the list, and there are now 43 residential training institutions in England and Wales. They all owe their origin to local effort, to educational societies, and religious bodies, but receive large subventions from the Education Department, amounting to about three-fourths of the annual cost of their maintenance.

What is understood by training?

(2.) The professional qualifications of a teacher, which it is the business of a training college to provide, are held to include:—

(*a.*) A full and thorough knowledge of the subjects to be taught.

(*b.*) Acquaintance with the best methods and rules of school organisation, teaching, and discipline, and with the principles which underlie those rules.

(*c.*) So much of the elements of ethics, logic, and psychology as has a bearing on the art and philosophy of teaching.

(*d.*) Some knowledge of the literature of education and of the lives and works of famous teachers.

(*e.*) Actual practice under supervision, in the art of teaching a class and conducting a school. [By the regulations of the Department, every student is required to spend during the two years of training not less than 150 hours in the practising school.]

(*f.*) Criticism lessons and the preparation of notes and sketches.

(*g.*) Observation of good models, both of teaching and of school organisation and equipment.

Its practical value.

(3.) All experience has tended strongly to confirm the belief in the great value of this discipline. There are, of course, exceptions. On the one hand, a few persons enter the profession so remarkably qualified by personal enthusiasm and special aptitude, that they achieve success without any technical training; and on the other, it is possible for some to pass through the whole of such a course, who fail to be inspired by it; and who are, after all, content to fall into routine, and to remain in the lower ranks. But these cases are comparatively rare. All school managers know that there is, as a general rule, an enormous difference between the trained and the untrained teacher; and that although many of the candidates who pass through the normal colleges, cannot be said to possess a liberal, or an extended general education, yet what they know they can teach, by right methods and with good effect. Indeed, all who are familiar with the kind of teaching to be heard in ordinary grammar schools, and middle schools, and who have also listened to the lessons given by trained teachers in the elementary schools, are struck by the contrast; by the freshness, the skill, and the variety of illustration to be found in the one, and the dulness, the mechanism, and the mere memory work which often characterise the other. Relatively to the subjects he has to teach, there can be little doubt that, as a rule, the trained elementary teacher is the better craftsman.

General knowledge as distinguished from professional.

(4.) It should be observed, however, that a large proportion of the time now devoted to study in the training colleges is necessarily devoted to the first of the purposes enumerated in paragraph 2, owing to the imperfect education generally possessed by the candidates on admission. It is evident that if the students already possessed, or were obtaining in some other way, an adequate acquaintance with the ordinary subjects included in the course of education in all liberal professions alike, the problem would be much simplified, and the time devoted to special normal training might be greatly reduced.

The regulations of the Education Department.

(5.) The Education Department has lately recognised the distinction between general and purely professional qualifications, by means of new regulations, *e.g.*—

(*a*) By dividing the requirements of the syllabus for the certificate examination into two distinct sections. Part I. including reading, recitation, school management, music, the principles and practice of teaching, and (for girls) needlework and domestic economy; and Part II. comprising history, literature, language, mathematics, geography, and science, the usual subjects of an advanced course of general instruction.

(*b*.) By retaining in the hands of the department the examination in Part I., and by providing as follows, for all students who may furnish other and satisfactory evidence of their proficiency in the general or academic subjects:—

"Students in training colleges who pass in any "British University an examination approved by the "Department will not be required to present themselves "for examination in those portions of Part II. of this "Syllabus which were included in that University "examination."

(*c*.) By recognising as day training colleges a new class of institutions—normal classes or departments attached to provincial or other colleges of university rank, in which the students are placed under special instruction in pedagogy from a normal master or mistress, and are so prepared to pass the Department's own examination in Part I.; while receiving, in common with other students who are not intending to become teachers, instruction from the college professors, in the literary and scientific subjects included in Part II.

Statistics of the day and residential colleges.

(6.) These proposals have materially modified, and are likely in the near future to affect still more significantly, the whole problem of training for elementary teachers. Nearly all the most important academic bodies in England and Wales, including the University of Cambridge, King's and University Colleges in London, and Owen's College, Manchester, have expressed their willingness to co-operate with the Education Department on the basis of its new regulations, and have made arrangements satisfactory to that Department for the due instruction and practice of those of their students who desire to become teachers. Liberal grants are now made by the Department in respect both to the instruction and the maintenance of such students during their two years' course. There are now, in addition to 43 residential colleges, 14 day training colleges of this new type. In the colleges of the former class, there are 1,384 men, and 1,961 women; and in the day colleges 284 men, and 276 women, but this latter number is likely to be substantially increased ere long.

(7.) It is too early to estimate the comparative merits of these two classes of institutions, or to forecast the probable effect of the introduction of a new class of trained agents into the ranks of the elementary teachers. Until we know how the young people trained under the new conditions shall have been found to compare with the existing teachers, not only in attainments but in character, sympathy with the work, and general moral influence, the data for the formation of an accurate judgment are not before us, and it would be premature to hazard an opinion. It may, however, be said that while I have good reason to appreciate the great merits of the residential colleges, the excellence of much of the teaching, and the guarded and careful discipline which at a very critical age is provided for the students, I have long been conscious of some disadvantages in the seminary system. In a community composed exclusively of young people who are of the same age and the same previous experience, who are looking forward to the same future career, and who are taught for the most part by persons similarly trained, there is, as I have said in official reports, a want of breadth and freedom, and an inevitable closeness in the intellectual atmosphere. The students are all working with the same syllabus in view; they see little beyond it, and they have scarcely any opportunity of comparing what they know with the standard of a liberal education as it is recognised in other professions. On the other hand, the students in the day colleges lead a freer life, they are earlier taught to feel responsibility for the employment of their own time, and the conditions under which they receive their general instruction are in some respects more favourable to breadth of vision, self-knowledge, and general culture. There is, of course, however less security for moral and religious discipline, less of comradeship and of opportunity for mutual help. It should be added that in America, Germany, and France, as well as in Scotland, most of the normal students reside at their own homes, and attend the college by day only. It is understood that difficulties respecting the conduct or discipline of the students are very rarely found to arise from this cause.

Estimate of their comparative advantages.

(8.) The whole of the existing system of training colleges in this country, whether for day or residential students, presupposes that the large majority of the candidates have passed through their period of apprenticeship as pupil-teachers, and have reached the age of 18. Hence the two years' course of normal instruction is so planned as to be suitable for students in their nineteenth and twentieth years. But it is manifest that where the pupil-teacher system does not exist other arrangements may be expedient. In the normal colleges of America, and in most continental countries, students are admissible at 16. They are not, however, required to enter on the practice of teaching in schools until the later years of their course.

Age of admission.

Extension of the training system to secondary teachers.

(9.) If it be deemed expedient to make use of the experience which has been gained in the domain of elementary instruction, and to adopt, with needful modifications, some analogous measures for the better preparation and equipment of secondary teachers, it would appear that two of the most effective means of attaining this object are (1) the further development of the existing normal departments in the provincial and other day colleges, and (2) the more direct action and influence of the Universities.

(1). By developing the normal classes of the present day colleges.

(10.) In regard to the former of these expedients, it happens that my last report to the Education Department contains one or two passages which were written in anticipation of some such inquiry as that on which the Commission is now engaged. I need not, therefore, apologise for reproducing the arguments in this place:—

(11.) "I look forward with strong hope to a further development, in the near future, of the usefulness of the day training colleges. The need for some form of professional preparation for the teachers in secondary schools is likely to be more and more strongly felt every year. It is a trite thing to say that teaching is a fine art; that it has its rules and laws; that those rules have their true justification in psychology and in the constitution of human nature; that there are right and wrong methods of disciplining and handling a class, of presenting truth to a learner's mind, of organising a school, and of economising the time and power of the teacher; and that there are reasons to be given why some are right and others are wrong. These are elementary truths which have been long recognised in connexion with the teaching in our primary schools. But although they are applicable to all schools alike, they have hitherto received scant recognition in the sphere of secondary and higher instruction. Already, however, the Universities of Cambridge and London have taken measures to encourage intending teachers to study the art and philosophy of teaching and the best educational literature. By some of the most distinguished head masters of public schools, and by such governing bodies as the Council of the Girls' Public Day Schools Company, those candidates for appointment who possess the teachers' diploma are *ceteris paribus* preferred, and are found in practice to have a great advantage over others who, though well-equipped with knowledge, have never given any heed to the art of communicating what they know. Yet the aspirant to the calling of a secondary or public school teacher may complain with reason that however he may desire systematic guidance and preparation before entering upon his work, he does not know where to look for it. The existing residential training colleges are not open to him; and the only attempts made in England to establish a training institution for secondary schoolmasters proved to be a failure. Schoolmistresses have from the

first shown a keener perception of the need of professional education than their brothers, but the supply of such training, even for them, is lamentably inadequate. The Maria Grey College at Brondesbury, the Cambridge Training College for Women, the department for student-teachers in the famous Ladies' College at Cheltenham, and the non-government department at the Home and Colonial Training College, are the only resources known to me by which gentlewomen who wish to qualify themselves as teachers in intermediate and higher schools can obtain systematic instruction.

(12.) "In these circumstances, the establishment of normal departments in the great provincial colleges of university rank in England and Wales, and the encouraging success which has already been attained in those institutions, open out an opportune and most hopeful prospect. It is not likely that new institutions expressly designed like the first two just named, will be multiplied even for women. Still less is it likely that any such institutions will be successfully established for men. Nor is it quite clear that it would be desirable. Neither in France or America, nor in any country known to me, is it the practice to require special training in a normal seminary in the case of candidates for teacherships in higher schools. Such seminaries are indeed needed for primary teachers, because the general education of the class from which they are drawn is deficient, and because, in fact, three-fourths of the time spent in those seminaries is required for instruction in language, literature, history, and mathematics, subjects which form essential parts of every system of general education, and are required in all liberal professions alike. Presumably the young student who is destined to become a teacher in a high school has acquired all this in some college or university. What he wants is a special course of pedagogic instruction and practice, as a technical supplement to his general studies, analogous to that which would be needed if he contemplated law or medicine as his career. And this special preparation will probably be best found, not in an institution composed exclusively of persons whose whole studies are directed by a syllabus, and with a view to a professional examination; but in a separate normal department in a good general college, wherein for six or twelve months he may devote himself mainly to a study of the principles and methods of education, and to systematic practice under due supervision and criticism, in one or more good schools.

(13.) "Now this is precisely the want which the institutions, now newly recognised by your Lordships as day training colleges, have it in their power to supply. The authorities of these institutions have already become interested in the professional training of teachers. They have seen the advantage of the practical lessons in school management, and of the theoretical study of methodology which your Lordships' regulations prescribe for the future masters and mistresses of

elementary schools. They have taken pains to comply with those regulations by appointing a master of method. Besides this, in several cases, notably at Bristol, Nottingham, and Cardiff, one of the most eminent professors gives to the normal students a special course of lectures on so much of logic, ethics, and mental philosophy as has a direct bearing on the art of teaching. And it has thus become evident that, *mutatis mutandis*, much of the same discipline would prove of great value to the teachers of secondary and higher schools. Some modifications would necessarily be made. Much of the students' practice, though not the whole of it, might fitly be obtained in the best secondary or grammar schools in the neighbourhood; and the course of theoretical and practical studies would be guided rather by the curriculum set forth by the Cambridge Syndicate or the London University Senate, than by the syllabus of the Education Department.

Proposed experiment at Nottingham.

(14.) "One experiment in this direction is about to be made in connexion with the University College at Nottingham. The following is an extract from the public announcement recently put forth by the authorities of that institution:—

"University College, Nottingham.

"Proposed Courses on the Science and History of Education, in connexion with the Examinations under the Teachers' Training Syndicate (Cambridge University).

"The great advance which has been made in educational matters during the last 20 years renders it more necessary than ever that a teacher should possess a sound knowledge of the Science of Education as well as proficiency in the Art, if he or she is to attain to the highest success in the profession.

"That the Education Department has fully recognised this is shown by the fact that, during the last 10 years, Candidates for the Certificate examination have been expected to show an acquaintance with the elementary principles of Psychology and Logic, in addition to their practical knowledge.

"Two of our Universities (London and Cambridge) have for some years past recognised the importance of this department of knowledge by granting a diploma to all candidates who succeed in passing their examinations in the Theory, History, and Practice of Teaching. The London Examination is, however, open only to graduates, and hence many teachers are unable to avail themselves of its advantages. At Cambridge, on the other hand, the regulations are much more elastic.

"It is proposed, therefore, to establish a course of lectures at University College, Nottingham, in order to prepare for this examination. The course will be on Fridays from 7 to 8, and will be continued in the third term. The fee will be 5*s*. per term.

"The main purpose of the course is to enable teachers to obtain a wider and more complete knowledge of the Science and History of Education.

(15.) "In the prospect of any further measures which may attach added importance to the professional qualifications of

teachers in all ranks, or which may provide for the registration of such qualifications, it may be expected that the precedent thus to be established at Nottingham, will prove to be so useful and successful as to be extensively followed. Grants from the Education Department will, of course, neither be needed nor asked for on behalf of the additional students received under the new conditions, and such students will take university diplomas and not Government certificates. But men and women who shall have availed themselves of these new provisions are likely to be distinguished by a truer and broader conception of the teachers' art, and to exercise greater skill in practising it. Their possible influence on the views and aims which may prevail in the higher ranks of the teachers' profession cannot easily be estimated at present, but it cannot fail to be beneficial, and I do not doubt that teachers so qualified will be able to render exceptional public service.

The provision of secondary *practising* schools.

(16.) "Any such extension of the training system to secondary teachers will bring into view the subject of practising schools—their supply, their relation to the work of training, and the use which should be made of them. It may be well, therefore, to put on record here the result of such experience as has been gained in connexion with the colleges already aided and inspected by the Department. A fear has often been expressed that it would be difficult to find proper provision for the practical work of secondary schoolmasters and mistresses, owing to the disturbance which would be caused in the schools, and to the unwillingness of the head teachers to allow a class to be made a *corpus vile* on which experiments should be tried. This fear I believe to be groundless. No doubt the presence of one or two teachers who are not on the regular staff interferes a little with the organisation, and renders necessary, on the part of the head teacher, some slight adjustment of his plans. But this trifling disadvantage is much more than compensated by the greater freshness, life, and variety which are introduced into the school work by teachers presumably interested in learning their profession, and anxious to distinguish themselves. It is a familiar result of experience that there is a higher general level of intelligence in schools which are frequented for purposes of students' practice than in ordinary schools. This is so strongly felt in many places, that there is often a competition among the head teachers for the privilege of receiving the visits of the students. The boards at Liverpool, Birmingham, Newcastle, and Sheffield, and other towns, place the best of their schools at the disposal of the college authorities, and the teachers regard it as an honour when their schools are selected, I always ask the masters and mistresses whether they find the presence of the students a help or a hindrance, and the answer is almost invariably satisfactory. The head teachers are pleased to have additional influence and opportunities of usefulness; they often give very valuable counsel to the students, and almost without

exception they fill up the returns connected with the conduct and teaching powers of the several students, in a way which shows insight and sympathy, and furnishes valuable help to the college authorities." — Report of Committee of Council for 1892–93, pp. 159–161.

(2.) The action and influence of the Universities.

(17.) In each of two Scotch Universities—Edinburgh and St. Andrew's—a special professorship in education has been founded by the trustees of Dr. Andrew Bell's estate. In Cambridge, occasional lectures on the Science and History of Education have been given, and a syndicate has been formed with power to institute examinations, and to recommend the granting by the University, of special diplomas to intending teachers. The University of London has also instituted similar examinations, the conditions differing in only two main particulars from those of Cambridge, viz., (1) in requiring that none but persons who have already taken a degree shall be candidates, and (2) in insisting that all candidates shall pass the practical, as well as the theoretical, part of the examination. But it cannot be said that at present any English university has taken seriously in hand the professional training of the schoolmaster as an integral and organised department of its academic work.

See Appendix A.

See Appendix B.

A Faculty of education.

(18.) It is universally admitted that the first duty of a university, to all its students alike, is to give general, not special or professional education, *literæ humaniores*, the learning which has no visible or immediate relation to the mode whereby a man is to get his living, but which helps him to live, and to spend his life worthily. A secondary purpose has, however, always been recognised as legitimately within the scope of a university. This purpose may be described as that of ennobling and liberalising the higher professional employments, and preventing them from degenerating into trades. Accordingly, schools of law, of divinity, of medicine, and even of engineering, have found their appropriate places in the organisation of universities; and rewards and honours have been awarded to successful students. These students have been for the most part pursuing post-graduate courses, and supplementing the general knowledge represented in the ordinary degree by the special reading and exercises appropriate to their several professions. Now it is much to be desired that the profession of teaching should be placed in a similar position. It is the calling to which large and constantly increasing numbers of graduates are intending to devote themselves, and for which they have at present little opportunity to qualify themselves. It is not unreasonable that they should look to their Alma Mater for some help and guidance before undertaking their life's work. A school or tripos of education might as a first step be established. "Pedagogy," it may be remarked in passing, is an ugly word, to which the ear of the English public is not yet

reconciled, although it or its equivalent is generally accepted and understood in France, Germany, Switzerland, and the United States, and can therefore hardly be avoided. The late Professor Pillans preferred the term "Didactics." If the Universities were once induced to undertake the work, the establishment of an honour examination on this subject would require to be supplemented by the appointment of a lecturer or professor, qualified not only by his theoretical and practical knowledge and his power of exposition, but also by actual acquaintance with some of the best methods in use both in English and foreign schools. It would also be necessary for the professor and the University to be placed in such relations to the heads of some of the best public schools of different types, as might ensure for all the students ample opportunities of practice under observation. Diplomas granted by the Universities on such conditions would soon come to be highly valued, and would go far to create a strong public opinion in favour of training as an almost indispensable element in the qualification of teachers in all ranks.

Student teachers.

Some useful experiments have been tried in one or two public schools, and in the Ladies' College, Cheltenham, with a view to train "student teachers," while on probation, in the methods of conducting school work, and especially in giving class-lessons. What is called in the State of Michigan and in other parts of the American Union the "cadet system" is planned on a similar principle. Both methods may well deserve fuller examination than they have yet received; but it will probably be found that neither can be regarded as more than a temporary and imperfect expedient, and that both fall far short of providing the instruction in the art and principles of teaching, which is required to make a skilled practitioner in that art.

APPENDIX.

The following are the regulations issued respecting the Universities of Cambridge and London for the Teachers' Special Examination.

UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE.

EXAMINATION of TEACHERS in 1892 and 1893.

1. An Examination in the Theory, History, and Practice of Teaching will be held in London, Cambridge, Cheltenham, and Edinburgh, on Monday and Tuesday, June 26 and 27, 1893, for persons who shall have completed the age of 20 before July 15, 1893, and Certificates will be awarded to those who pass the Examination satisfactorily.

Forms of application for admission to the Examination should be sent to the Secretary not later than May 20.

An Examination, on which Certificates will also be granted, will be held at Cambridge on Tuesday and Wednesday, December 6 and 7, 1892, for persons who shall have completed the age of 20 before January 15, 1893.

Forms of application for admission should be sent in on or before November 5.

2. No candidate can be admitted to either Examination unless he or she have either—

1. Graduated in some University of the United Kingdom, or passed the Examination for Licentiate in Arts at St. Andrews.

Or 2. Satisfied the Examiners in Parts I. and II. of the previous Examination.

Or 3. Obtained a Certificate in one of the Higher Local Examinations of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

Or 4. Obtained any Higher Certificate of the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board.

Or 5. Satisfied the Examiners in one of the Senior Local Examinations of the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, or Durham, in English and at least one language, ancient or modern, and in Euclid and Algebra.

[Women who have passed the Senior Local Examination may qualify by passing a separate Examination in any of the above-mentioned subjects in which they have not already passed.]

Or 6. Passed the Examination for Matriculation in the University of London.

Or 7. Been presented for Examination by a Training College approved of by the Syndicate under § 5 below.

Or 8. Passed the first University Examination in Arts of the Royal University of Ireland.

Or 9. Passed the Preliminary Examination of the Victoria University.

Or 10. In the Examination for Certificates conducted by the Education Department in taking the papers of the second year been placed in the First Division.

3. The subjects of Examination will be:

(1.) The Theory of Education.

(*a*) The scientific basis of the Art of Education.

Physical and mental characteristics of childhood and youth. The growth and development of mind and brain. Natural order of the acquisition of knowledge. Development of the will: formation of habits and of character. Sympathy and its effects.

(*b*) Elements of the Art of Education.

Training of the senses, the memory, the imagination and taste, the powers of judging and reasoning. Training of the desires and of the will. Discipline and authority. Emulation, its use and abuse. Rewards and punishments.

(2) The History of Education in Europe since the Revival of Learning.

A general knowledge will be required of systems of education which have actually existed of the work of eminent teachers, and

of the theories of leading writers on education up to the present time. A more detailed knowledge will be required of special subjects selected from year to year.

The special subjects for 1892 will be John Amos Comenius, his Life and Educational Works, by Professor Laurie, and the Life and Work of Pestalozzi.

The special subjects for 1893 will be John Amos Comenius, his Life and Educational Works, by Professor Laurie, and Rousseau's Emile.* Books I., II., III.

The special subjects for 1894 will be Locke's Thoughts concerning Education, and Rousseau's Emile.* Books I., II., III.

(3) The Practice of Education. This subject will consist of two parts:—

(*a*) Method, that is, the order and correlation of studies, oral teaching and exposition, the right use of text-books and note-books, the art of examining and questioning, and the best methods of teaching the various subjects which are included in the curriculum of an ordinary school.

(*b*) School management. The structure, furniture, and fitting of school-rooms, books and apparatus, visible and tangible illustrations, classification, distribution of time, registration of attendance and progress, hygiene, with special reference to the material arrangements of the school and the conditions of healthy study.

One paper will be set on each of the subjects (1), (2), (3). A fourth paper will be set containing a small number of questions of an advanced character on each of the three subjects. The hours each day will be from 9.30 to 12.30 and from 1.30 to 4.30.

A fee of 2*l.* 10*s.* shall be paid to the Syndicate by each Candidate, except as otherwise provided in § 5.

4. The Syndicate will further award Certificates of Practical Efficiency in teaching to Candidates who have already obtained a Certificate of Theoretical Knowledge, and have been engaged in school work for a year in some school or schools recognised for this purpose by the Syndicate. The bases for the Certificate of Practical Efficiency will be:—

(1) Examination of the class taught by the Candidate.
(2) An inspection of the class while being taught.
(3) Questions put to the teacher in private after the inspection.
(4) A report made by the Head Master or Mistress.

The fee for such Examination shall be 2*l.* 10*s.*, except in cases where there is only one Candidate, when the fee will be 5*l.* This does not apply to Examinations in Training Colleges.

5. The Syndicate will also be ready to inspect in the summer of 1893 any college established for the training of teachers other than elementary, and to award Certificates of Theoretical Knowledge to such Candidates as may deserve them. They will also be prepared to examine the students of such Colleges with a view to awarding Certificates of Practical Efficiency, if they are satisfied with the duration and character of the training in practical work received by the Candidates.

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* This had best be studied in Miss Worthington's translation. Isbister and Co.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

EXAMINATION in the ART, THEORY, and HISTORY of TEACHING.

An Examination shall be held once in each year in the Art, Theory, and History of Teaching; and shall commence on the second Tuesday in December.

No Candidate shall be admitted to this Examination unless he have previously graduated in the University.

Every candidate must, *not less than Nine Weeks* before the Examination, apply to the Registrar for a Form of Entry, which must be returned *not less than Eight Weeks* before the Examinations, accompanied by the Candidate's Fee.

Every Candidate entering for the first time must pay a fee of 5*l.* to the Registrar. If a Candidate withdraws his name, or fails to present himself at the Examination, or fails to pass it, the Fee shall not be returned to him; but he shall be allowed to enter for any subsequent Examination upon payment at every such Entry of an additional fee of 2*l.* 10*s.*; provided that he comply with the Regulations in the preceding paragraph.

Candidates shall be examined in the following subjects:—

I.—*Mental and Moral Science in their relation to the Work of Teaching.**

Observation, and the Training of the Senses.
Association.
Memory.
Reasoning.
Imagination.
The Will, and how to train it.
Habit and Character.
Authority and Discipline.
Rewards and Punishments.
The Conduct of the Understanding.

II.—*Methods of Teaching and School Management.*

The Structure, Fitting, and Furniture of School Buildings.
Sanitary Conditions of Effective Teaching.
Physical Exercises, Drill, and Recreation.
Books and Apparatus.
Registration of Attendance and Progress.
Organisation of Schools.
Classification of Scholars.
Distribution of Duty among Assistants.
Apportionment of Time.
The Co-ordination and Division of Studies.
Examination, *Vivâ voce* and in Writing.
The Use of Oral Lessons and of Book Work.
Methods of Teaching and of Illustrating each of the Subjects included in an ordinary School Course.
Preparation of Teaching Notes.
Tests and Records of Results.

* The Questions in this Branch will have no special reference to the writings of any one author or school of authors. In matters of opinion Answers will be judged according to their accuracy of thought and expression.

III.—*The History of Education; the Lives and Work of Eminent Teachers; and the Systems of Instruction adopted in Foreign Countries.*

[Under this head special Books and Subjects will be prescribed from year to year, and will be announced two years previously.]

IV.—*Practical Skill in Teaching.*

The Examination, which shall be both written and practical, shall extend over three days, and shall be conducted as follows:—

WRITTEN EXAMINATION.

TUESDAY:

Morning, 10 *to* 1. Mental and Moral Science.
Afternoon, 2 *to* 5. Methods of Teaching and School Management.

WEDNESDAY:

Morning, 10 *to* 1. Methods of Teaching, &c., continued.
Afternoon, 2 *to* 5. History of Education; Lives and Work of Eminent Teachers; Systems of Instruction in Foreign Countries.

PRACTICAL EXAMINATION.

Practical Skill in Teaching and in the Management of a Class.

[Arrangements for this division of the Examination will be made specially on each occasion. It will be held, if practicable, in the same week as the Written Examination, the place and hour for holding it being announced previously to the conclusion of such Written Examination.]

Candidates shall not be approved by the Examiners unless they have shown a competent knowledge in all the subjects of examination, and have given satisfactory evidence of practical skill in teaching.

In the course of the second week following the conclusion of the Examination, the Examiners shall publish the names of the Candidates who have passed, arranged in alphabetical order.

A certificate, to be called the "Teachers Diploma," under the Seal of the University, and signed by the Chancellor, shall be delivered at the Public Presentation for Degrees to each Candidate who has passed.

Memorandum by J. G. Fitch, Esq., LL.D., on the relation which should subsist between Primary and Secondary Schools.

1. The right relations to be established between the two classes of schools and the right means of transition from the one to the other depend largely on the character and constitution of the Secondary School itself.

2. Roughly it may be said that the object of the primary school is to give the best instruction and training which can be afforded up to the age of 14 to those scholars who will as a rule enter on the business of life at that age.

3. The Secondary School carries the instruction forward to the seventeenth year or beyond it. It may assume one of two distinct types, *e.g.* :—

(*a.*) It may receive its scholars early—say at seven or eight—be responsible for their elementary instruction; but plan its work from the first, in view of the fact that it has a larger programme than that of the Elementary School, and includes several subjects not attempted in that school.

(*b.*) It may begin its work at the point at which the Primary School ends, viz., at 14; may receive no scholars below that age, and may presuppose that the candidate for admission has passed with credit through the Primary School course, and will pursue his studies further on the same general lines.

4. The ordinary grammar and intermediate schools of England and the secondary schools proper of France, Germany, Switzerland, Holland, and Belgium are of the former type (*a.*). They practically draw their scholars from a higher social class, and fees are generally charged in them. The disadvantage attending them is that during the two or three earlier years of the course —say from 8 to 12—they are covering much of the same ground as the Primary School, and as a rule not doing the work so well. Their great advantage is that they make a beginning, at that age, with the rudiments of several advanced subjects, *e.g.*, Latin, French, and mathematics, which form necessary parts of the complete secondary course.

5. The ordinary high schools of America are of the second type (*b.*). So also are the Upper Elementary Schools, *Écoles primaires supérieures*, of France and of the Continent generally, and most of the "higher grade board schools" recently established in the great towns of England. They are essentially continuation schools. They undertake to supplement the work of a good primary school by such additional subjects and exercises as may serve as an appropriate finish to that work, and as may introduce the pupil to more serious and extended studies.

6. It is evident that the method of linking together the Primary and the Secondary Schools should be determined by the type adopted for secondary instruction. The transition from a lower to a higher school is necessarily easier on the system (*b*) than on that described in (*a*).

7. If, however, the school distinguished as (*a*) be, as it is certainly likely to be, accepted as the normal type of the Secondary School in England, it is manifest that the pupil, whom it is intended to promote from the lower to the higher school, should not remain in the lower to the end of the ordinary Primary School course. He must be discovered earlier—say at the age of 11 or 12—otherwise there will be an awkard break in the continuity of his studies, since the course of instruction in

the thirteenth and fourteenth years in the Secondary School differs materially, both in range and in its general treatment, from that adopted during the same years, even in a good Elementary School. Even the best instructed pupil from the lower school, who entered the higher at 14, would be at some disadvantage, as compared with those who had acquired the rudiments of secondary subjects earlier.

8. It is of the highest importance to keep the way open for boys and girls from the lowest social ranks up to the higher schools and so to the Universities; provided that two conditions be fulfilled (i) that the scholar shall evince exceptional ability, diligence, or promise, and (ii) that his parents are willing to make a sacrifice by forgoing his earnings, and allowing him to remain under instruction for a prolonged period. It is also important to prevent as far as possible intermediate and Secondary Schools from being regarded by the public as middle class schools. Undoubtedly, the majority of those scholars who will desire secondary education, and who will be able to avail themselves of it, will be drawn from the middle and upper classes; but whatever is possible should be done to make the classification of schools depend on educational rather than social distinction; and to encourage the admission into them of all scholars, of whatever rank, who need the education they provide.

9. With a view to secure the educational interests of the poor it has often been proposed to limit the privileges of free admission to the children of persons of a certain income. In practice this well-intended provision seldom works well, for it renders necessary an inquisition into the means of the parents, which is often difficult and embarrassing, and in which it is not always easy to ascertain all the truth. And it should be remembered that the amount of the nominal income is not always a true measure of the parent's need, unless the sources of that income, the number of the family, and many other circumstances are also taken into account.

10. The really effective safeguards for the interests of those of poorer scholars for whom it would be right to reserve free places are:—

(*a.*) To secure in all Secondary Schools on a public basis a certain number of such free places—not less than five per cent. of the whole number of scholars—for the *bonâ fide* scholars of the public Elementary Schools; and in all schools of the highest rank, a similar proportion of free places for scholars from the intermediate or Secondary Schools.

(*b.*) To supplement the value of the scholarships in cases where the amount of the endowment permits by a small bursary, which shall serve as a contribution towards the maintenance of some of the most meritorious scholars.

(*c.*) To make the competitive examination on entrance correspond exactly to the standard of attainment ordinarily reached at the prescribed age, by the best scholars in the lower school. This is most important, for if other knowledge, *e.g.*, that of Latin or Greek grammar is exacted, private and expensive coaching becomes necessary, and the privilege of admission becomes appropriated by richer people. [The history of St. Paul's School illustrates this fact.]

11. In so far as it may be determined to recognise schools of the type described in (*b*) as part of the provision for secondary instruction, the appropriate entrance examination for the higher school may be identical with the final examination of the lower, and this examination may serve at once as a *terminus ad quem* relative to the primary, and a *terminus a quo* relatively to the Secondary School course.

12. The position of the Higher Grade Schools now being established by all the most enterprising of the provincial School Boards and by some voluntary bodies deserves serious consideration. They are not all of the same type, *e.g.*,—

(i.) Some of them assume from the first the character of Middle Class Schools. They take scholars of all ages. They carry on the instruction till the fifteenth or sixteenth year, and teach Latin or French. They contrive to entitle themselves to the Government grant by keeping the fees down to 9*d.* per week. They often achieve success in the Oxford and Cambridge Local Examinations and in winning scholarships at higher schools. They are essentially Secondary Schools and compete seriously with the reorganised Endowed Schools, because, as they are technically Public Elementary Schools, they receive Government inspection and a liberal grant.

(ii.) Others are exclusively continuation schools, receiving only the scholars who have passed the Fifth or Sixth Standards in the Primary Schools, and undertaking simply to prolong the Primary Education for two or three years, especially in the direction of technical and scientific instruction and in the preparation for industrial pursuits. They do not teach an ancient language, or form any part of the ladder which leads up to the Universities. As already explained, they correspond very nearly to the *Écoles primaires supérieures* of France, to the lower *Realschulen* of Germany, and to similar schools in other Continental countries, and their main object is to furnish the scholars who have succeeded best in the ordinary Elementary School course with an opportunity of putting a higher finish on to that course, and of qualifying themselves to take better positions in the ranks of skilled industry.

13. Now it may well be doubted whether the existence of schools of the former class can be justified in the present state of the law. Parliament makes a grant for Elementary Education only. It does not profess to subsidise Secondary Schools. Yet the schools described in 12 (i.) are essentially of this character. The parents are fully able and willing to pay higher fees, and the managers, while seeking to obtain scholars of a higher social class, keep those fees down to 9*d.* per week or 10*s.* per quarter merely in order to obtain the Government grant.

14. But the continued recognition of the Higher Grade Board Schools of the type described in 12 (ii.) may be more easily defended on grounds of public policy, for they do not encroach on the proper domain of secondary instruction, although they teach some higher subjects. So long as they seek only to carry forward the Primary School course on the same lines, they may be legitimately regarded as the crown and completion of the Public Elementary School, and thus entitled to a share of the Parliamentary grant.

15. But the full development of these Higher Grade Schools is prevented by the present anomalous relations of the Education Department to the Department of Science and Art. By Article 13 of the Code, no grant can be paid by the former in respect of a scholar over 14 years of age who has passed the examination in the Seventh Standard. But grants from the Science and Art Department may be paid after that age in respect of the subjects included in the Syllabus of that Department, but of no others. Hence, as money grants are essential from the managers' point of view, it becomes necessary, after a boy has passed the Seventh Standard, to limit his course of instruction to those subjects in respect of which grants can be earned. The prosecution of a rounded and well-devised scheme of general study, in any other than a scientific or technical direction, is thus seriously discouraged. If the Higher Grade Schools are to fulfil their purpose as continuation schools *à programme développé*, they should be free to carry the education forward to the age of 16 in any other way which the scholars may need, and not be forced by pecuniary considerations to assume a one-sided character, and to teach only the subjects of the Science and Art Syllabus.

16. Whatever view is ultimately adopted as to the mode of transition from the lower schools to the higher, it is certain that the award of a leaving certificate, attesting that a scholar in the Elementary School had passed the Seventh Standard with credit, would greatly facilitate the transition, and would often render the selection of suitable candidates for promotion much easier. The examination for *certificats d'études* in France is found to be much valued by parents, by employers of labour, and by the authorities of institutions for higher instruction. Some similar arrangement in England would probably prove a valuable link between primary and secondary education and would not be

without a useful incidental effect on the Elementary Schools themselves.

My reasons for desiring to see in England (1) higher elementary schools of the French type, and (2) the general introduction of a good leaving certificate from the primary school, are set forth in fuller detail in a "Memorandum on the "working of the Free School System in France, Belgium, and the "United States," presented as a Parliamentary Paper in 1891 and reprinted in the Report of the Education Department for that year.

Training of Teachers of Secondary Schools in France, by Mr. Herbert Ward, B.A., one of H.M. Inspectors of Schools, &c.

"The best feature of these (the French public secondary) "schools seems to be their thoroughly trained and tested staff "of professors." So wrote Mr. Matthew Arnold in 1868 after an account of the qualifications required in teachers of French secondary schools, and a glowing description of the higher normal school at Paris. It is here proposed to discuss this dictum and to examine its accuracy, especially in view of the more recent developement of the French school system.

What is to be understood by the "thorough training" of a teacher? As such training admittedly does not exist in England for teachers in secondary schools, even the necessity of it being denied by a great many, we are driven to seek an analogy from the elementary schools.

In elementary education in England and France alike, it means two things. A trained teacher is one who, in the first place, has been fully instructed in the matters which he will have to teach. The certificate of the Education Department, granted to training college students upon examination, and also to acting teachers, is a guarantee that the elementary teacher knows his English, arithmetic, geography, and what not; and the South Kensington certificates, testify similarly to his possession of some knowledge of the branches of science, and of that in which he has been examined. But "a trained teacher" connotes something more. The phrase implies that, besides instruction in the matter of his teaching, he has also received lessons in the *method*. In the English system of elementary education, at the training colleges, and to a varying extent during the period of apprenticeship to pupil-teachers, regular courses of lessons are given in school method and school management. The same is true of French normal schools. School method and management embrace not only the details of the teaching of particular subjects, but also psychology and logic as applied to education, and hints on the administration of schools. Lessons before elementary classes for the purpose of criticism are constantly

given or heard by teachers under training, and model lessons are shown them by the master of method. Moreover, they have practice in teaching in schools during the apprenticeship under the eye of a head-master, during the training college course, under the direct and constant supervision of the method master.

Of these two sections of the training of teachers, neither exists for secondary schools in England. There is no express provision for cultivation on the intellectual side for the man who would teach in a secondary school, still less is there any instruction in the science and art of imparting knowledge on the theory of education. It will be found that in France there is a tolerably complete organisation to secure the former—the intellectual training and testing of the future teacher—and so far Mr. Arnold's saying is fully justified. But before it can be accepted as covering the second kind of training, in method, very considerable qualifications will have to be introduced. It is not within the scope of this Memorandum to discuss the necessity, or otherwise, of the professional training, so to speak, of the teacher in secondary schools, but simply, in view of those who demand that there shall be some, to point out the state of things in France.

It is desirable, by way of preliminary, to notice two or three contrasts and distinctions. In the first place, secondary schools in France are divided into two well-marked classes, *lycées* and *collèges*. The leading difference between the two is one of administration, for the lycées draw upon state funds, while the colleges are supported upon municipal or communal funds. But besides this, there is an important difference in prestige, a difference accentuated by governmental regulations as to the staffing. For the conditions of appointment of masters in communal colleges are not so severe as those which govern the appointment of masters in lycées. There is a special scheme of salaries for *professeurs dè collège* distinct from that of the *professeurs de lycée*. In general, the staff of a college will not be so distinguished as that of a lycée, and presumably the instruction will not be so good. Any generalisation, then, concerning professors of lycées, will not necessarily be true of professors of communal colleges, who until recently could not claim the title of professor. It is upon the former that the attention of foreign inquirers has usually been directed; it was of these professors that Mr. Matthew Arnold was chiefly thinking when he spoke of a "thoroughly trained and tested staff of professors." But, having in view, the number of communal colleges, we cannot overlook the large body of teachers in them without grave danger of misconception.

Another important distinction, which illustrates also a curious contrast to English methods, exists in the staff of all public secondary schools, whether they are state or communal schools. Most of them are on the boarding system. In England this

would entail increased work upon resident masters in the way of "house-duty." In France, on the contrary, the teacher has not (except accidentally in small communal colleges) any house duty whatever. When his teaching work is over, he is completely free, and all supervision, whether of private study, preparation, or recreation, is undertaken by a body of ushers, who are called variously, *maîtres d'étude* or *maîtres répétiteurs*. The ushers, of whom there are some even on the staff of those schools which receive only day-boys, are usually men who are reading for a higher degree or certificate than the one they must possess. They do no teaching work, except in the case of the best qualified, who give help in preparation, and, except upon emergency, when they may be called upon to fill a temporary vacancy. But from their number are recruited to a very considerable extent the masters in the communal colleges and smaller provincial lycées. They too, therefore, although not, while in the exercise of their proper functions, teachers must be taken into account in any discussion upon teachers in French secondary schools. A third distinction to be noticed is that between the elementary division of a secondary school, and the two higher divisions. While the qualifications for masterships in the higher divisions almost necessarily presuppose an education in a secondary school, certain specially qualified primary schoolmasters, who have very rarely passed through a secondary school, are admitted to teach in the classes of the elementary division. There is also a special certificate qualifying the holder to teach such classes in the lycées, a certificate well within the reach of a primary schoolmaster. The elementary division, it should be said, prepares boys to begin a secondary education proper in the *division de grammaire*, and its course hardly differs from that of the primary school, except in the important addition of a modern language. But the division is so integral a part of most schools, except the highest Parisian lycées that its professors should be included in our survey. A still lower division, which may be found in some schools, is the division of *primary* classes, but for practical purposes there is no need to consider it apart from the elementary division.

These distinctions being clear, the intellectual training of teachers in French secondary schools may now come under discussion. I deal at present with the classical lycées and colleges for boys—the most numerous and oldest of public secondary schools—leaving for subsequent treatment the "modern" departments and schools for boys and the girls' schools. Admission to the various functions is an affair of degrees and certificates, and all masters (except the *répétiteurs*) are appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction, who selects his candidate from a list of persons competent for the post which is vacant.

There are two main degrees which concern the future professor, the degree of bachelor (*bachelier*) and that of licentiate

(*licencié*), which Mr. Arnold roughly compares to the English Bachelor and Master of Arts respectively. The degree of bachelor admits its possessor to the functions of *répétiteur* or *préparateur* (a higher kind of usher, whose work is sufficiently indicated by the name) in a college, and also, after a short probationary period to the same post in a lycée. It further enables a man to take provisional charge of a class in the higher divisions of a college though not the "titular professor" of the class. The licentiate may be titular professor in a college, but only provisionally in charge of a class in a lycée. In order to be full or titular professor in a lycée, the licentiate must have competed for, and won the title of "*agrégé*," a peculiar scholastic distinction, an explanation of which is for the present postponed. The difference between a full or titular professor (*professeur titulaire*) and the provisional professor (*chargé de cours*) is not only one of prestige. The titular professor is a sort of form-master acknowledged, and his tenure of office is secure, whereas the *chargé de cours* may be removed to make way for one qualified to take the permanent post. And also, as salaries in French secondary schools vary according to qualification and experience, there may be an important difference in the stipends of a titular and a merely provisional professor. In spite of the insecurity, there are often more provisional than titular professors in the remoter colleges and lycées where the fully qualified teacher cannot be induced to settle. In the elementary division, the special certificate of fitness, alluded to before, admits to the best posts, those in the lycées. But to be provisionally in charge of elementary classes in lycées and to be full professor in colleges, the bachelor's degree is sufficient or the certificates of a primary headmaster. For primary classes, primary schoolmasters and schoolmistresses are usually drafted in from their schools.

The possession of diplomas and certificates upon which the French so emphatically insist, is at any rate some guarantee of intellectual capacity in the teacher, as Mr. Arnold pointed out. The degree of intelligence involved in the diplomas needs some further elucidation. Leaving aside the certificates of teachers of elementary classes, which imply a good higher grade elementary education, with the addition of a foreign language in some cases, we may broadly say that the first condition of entering the profession of teaching in secondary schools is the possession of the bachelor's degree. How far, then, does this degree correspond to what is commonly required, though not as in France, legally necessary, in a secondary school teacher in England, a university pass degree? The examination consists of two parts, both founded on the work done in the upper division of a secondary school. The first part, which embraces the programme of the upper division as far as, and including that of the top form but one (*classe de rhétorique*), is compulsory on all candidates; it consists chiefly in Latin, Greek, French,

History and one modern language. It appears to me to correspond roughly to the intermediate examination in Arts at the London University, or to the matriculation examination of those colleges at Oxford and Cambridge, where some strictness is exercised. In the second part, which covers the work done in the highest form (*classe de philosophie*), there is to a certain extent liberty of choice. The subjects being philosophy and its history, mathematics, physics, and chemistry, the candidate can emphasise which he will by choosing to be examined on paper in one and orally in the rest. As the whole examination is well within the reach of an average boy of 18 in the top form, it should be below rather than above such examinations as the London and Victoria Universities' pass B.A. and the M.A. of the Scotch universities. It would seem, then, that the minimum qualification necessary for the teacher in a French secondary school is nearly the same as in practice is required in England. But while in England a pass degree can be won, and is frequently won, by men who have had no secondary school education, for example, an elementary schoolmaster. it would be more difficult to gain a French degree by mere private study. Hence it is, that few primary schoolmasters in France enter the secondary schools by this gate, while, on the contrary, in England the number is not inconsiderable.

It is to be remarked that there is nothing in the regulations to prevent a bachelor from teaching the highest forms in a communal college, although, according to the distinction already explained, he would not be recognised as "filling the chair" but only as a provisional substitute for a titular professor. But whatever be legally possible, in practice, the teacher in a communal college must possess the degree of licentiate. That this degree and not that of the bachelor is the real teachers' diploma is abundantly shown in the official "*programmes*" and instructions. In the preamble to the regulations for the licentiate's examination we read, "The knowledge required of "the candidate is that which is obtained in secondary education, "with the difference that at the *baccalauréat* the examining "body is questioning a pupil, at the *licenciat*, it has before it a "future professor destined shortly to take charge of a class." Accordingly the syllabus is drawn up to meet the intellectual requirements of the intending teacher. "He must show that he "knows everything that is necessary to conduct the lessons "with which he will be entrusted as a master in a secondary "school." "The establishment of a licentiate's degree in history "and geography is intended to furnish our colleges and even, "in certain cases, our lycées with professors of geography and "history who have received, along with a genuine literary "culture, a training in history and geography." The inferior degree involved an examination on the whole classical curriculum; in the higher degree of licentiate, there is specialisation, on the lines of the specialisation of functions in a secondary school. Thus

there are "*licenses*" on the letters side in philosophy, in letters, in history and geography, and one also with special mention of modern languages; on the science side there are sub-divisions parallel to the sub-divisions of the work in science and mathematics in the school. In each case, what is required is a more extended acquaintance with one of the departments of knowledge embraced in the syllabus for the *baccalauréat*. It is not necessary to give the *programmes* in full. My impression is that the licentiate's examination in letters (*i.e.*, pure classics, with the important addition of French classics) corresponds broadly with the London University B.A. examination (honours in classics) or the Honour School of Classical Moderations at Oxford. It will be seen that work for this degree is university work rather than school-work. It is ordinarily taken by those who are in attendance on courses at university centres. But attendance is habitually excused in the pupils of the higher normal school, and exemption is readily obtained by those who are actually engaged in teaching or supervising while reading for their degree.

I have dealt, so far, with the qualifications of teachers in communal colleges, chiefly; there remains the qualification of the full professor in a lycée. The titular professor in a lycée must be "*agrégé*." This coveted title is not a degree, because it is given after competition and not after public examination. The number of "*agregés*" in a particular year depends upon the needs of the lycées, so far as those needs can be foreseen. Thus, though the distinction is enthusiastically termed "the "crowning and final consecration of the studies of our young "professors," the "*agrégation*" by its very nature cannot be reached by the great body of teachers in French secondary schools. There is no precise English equivalent to the "*agrégation*." By some it is compared with the fellowship, but while there may be, approximately, the same severity in the tests, there are few other points in common. A teacher may be "*agrégé*" in any of eight orders; philosophy, letters (higher), history and geography, grammar (lower letters), modern languages, mathematical sciences, physical sciences, and natural sciences. There is no special syllabus issued. In his own subject the candidate is expected to display not only thorough knowledge but even erudition. A *professeur agrégé* is regarded so much as an expert in his own department, that under certain circumstances he may be entrusted with supplementary courses at a university centre. For the present purpose, there is no need to do more than emphasise the necessarily restricted number of those who are "provided with the title of *agrégé*," and to insist upon the extreme severity of the test.

It will be seen from the foregoing that, so far as guarantees of intellectual capacity are concerned, the French system of choosing their secondary schoolmasters leaves little to be desired. To supervise in schools of both first and second rank, and on

occasion to teach in those of second rank, the degree of bachelor is required, a certificate which testifies to a sound secondary education. Usually before teaching in communal colleges, necessarily before teaching in lycées, a "university degree," as it would be called in England, the degree of licentiate is demanded; and this is a warrant of special proficiency in some one branch of letters or science. The picked men of the profession, who have charge of the classes in schools of the first rank, must possess the teacher's diploma of "*agrégation.*"

We may now turn to the "training" of the teacher in the narrower sense of professional instruction in method. From certain public utterances of English educationalists, it appears to be expected that in the French system there is much that is worth imitating.

In the preparation for the bachelor's degree, there is absolutely no professional instruction. Indeed it is not to be looked for seeing that the *baccalaureat* merely puts an appropriate finish on a course of education in a secondary school and does not contemplate any specialisation of function whatever. Moreover, for teachers, it is really only preliminary to the *licenciat.* No doubt a large number, on the staff of colleges especially, have nothing more than this leaving-certificate, but in great part they are *répétiteurs* doing very little teaching work and themselves studying for some more valuable diploma.

It is more important to observe that in the preparation for the teacher's degree, that of licentiate, there is practically no professional instruction. The theory of teaching has no place in the syllabus and the question of method does not seem to be raised at all in the official *programmes.* The examination is purely a test of knowledge of subjects and not of educational theory or professional skill. There is one important reservation to be made, however, in view of a comparatively recent development. This is the institution of university bursarships (*bourses de faculté*) with the avowed end of enabling more of those who devote themselves to secondary teaching to obtain the grades which will qualify them for higher posts. "The "establishment of bursaries is specifically intended to supply "men who have the degree of licentiate to those colleges which "have none so qualified. . . . . The State wishes to aid "especially those young people who, while possessing an incli- "nation towards teaching, may be prevented from want of "sufficient means from attending the lectures in the faculties." (Quotation from circular of 8th September 1879.) The bursarships are tenable for one year at a university centre and are given usually upon examination. The number is restricted according to the probable requirements of the staffing of secondary schools. What is important from the point of view of the training of teachers is that special classes are held in the various faculties to prepare men for the *licenciat;* and to them are admitted not only the bursars but also such *répétiteurs,*

maîtres d'étude, maîtres auxiliaires, and *auditeurs libres,* as may be free at the hours when the lectures are delivered. In a circular dated 25th October 1888, the success of the bursaries is stated with some natural satisfaction; they are now recognised as almost a "*succursale*" or branch of the Higher Normal School. In the same circular I find a full acknowledgment of the necessity of instructing teachers in secondary schools in the science of teaching. But nothing follows more than general recommendations. The university professors are asked to lecture upon the pedagogic aspect of their subjects and to talk familiarly with their pupils on questions connected with their future work. How far this general instruction leads the university professor to give hints on teaching his own subject will depend very largely on the amount of time at his disposal and on the idiosyncrasy of the professor. Moreover, the students are to visit lycées during school hours, when possible and where, in order to observe the methods and class-management of the eminent professors who will be willing to admit them. Here again we have rather a counsel of perfection than a rule that cannot be infringed. No hard-and-fast regulation has been made since 1888 for "*boursiers de licence,*" and I understand that visits of observation or service in school with them is a matter of option. The possibility of such visits will naturally vary in the different centres according to the zeal of the authorities and the readiness of the professors in lycées to admit aspirants into their classes. In Paris, where the organisation of professional training is more complete than elsewhere, though it is still in a rudimentary state, bursars reading for the degree of licentiate are *not* regularly sent into schools for practice and observation. It is highly improbable that provincial centres will be before Paris in this matter. There are courses of lectures on education at some university centres, at Paris, Lyons, Bordeaux, and Toulouse. In Paris they are given by M. Marion, the Professor of the Science of Education; at the other places, they are delivered as supplementary courses to the ordinary series on philosophy. M. Marion's lectures are partly public, when they deal rather with the broad questions of education in general likely to interest others besides teachers, and partly restricted to members, actual and prospective, of the teaching profession. Of the latter, one course is open to the *boursiers de licence,* if they like to attend. It is frequented by a mixed auditory consisting of teachers and aspirants of almost all grades, a very large proportion being primary masters and mistresses. There is no formal series of addresses but a discussion of various educational problems treated now by the professor and now by one of the class. By the very nature of the case, questions connected with secondary teaching in colleges and lycées, especially detailed questions of method, can find very little place in the discussion. For *boursiers de licence,* then, destined probably to teach in colleges, there is provided, even at

Paris, only such limited pedagogic instruction as may be picked up from general lectures on education and teaching and from possible visits to schools. It is but fair to add that many of these bursars, when they have got their degree, proceed with renewed bursaries to study for the *agrégation*, the pedagogic aspect of which may now come under treatment.

The professional training and testing, so much to seek in the preparation for the two degrees of bachelor and licenciate, appears in the *agrégation*. "The *agrégation*," we are authoritatively told, "is to furnish to the young professors an opportunity of showing their capacities in the way of erudition, as well as their fitness for teaching. . . . It is of importance, then, to preserve its professional character." The examination for the title of *agrégé* comprises two distinct portions. The first, called the *preliminary test*, consists of written compositions of a very advanced order, but very rarely concerned with educational questions. The second, or *final test*, includes *vivâ-voce* explanations of passages of authors, *lessons*, and *practical exhibitions of teaching skill*. As this is the nearest approach, so far, to a definite professional examination, details will not be out of place. In the *agrégation de lettres*, for example, there are three sections of the final test:—

(1.) The translation and explanation of passages from authors in Latin and Greek, and comments upon a French text. The authors chosen are indicated a year before-and, and hence no preparation is allowed for this test at the examination. "The candidates must offer all the "remarks upon each text that explanation in class "would call for."

(2.) Explanation of a passage of Greek *or* Latin, taken from the *programme* of Secondary Schools, with a literary and philological commentary. Twenty-four hours are allowed for preparation.

(3.) A lesson of an hour on some subject taken from classical literature, the subject to be selected by lot from the syllabus of Secondary Schools. Twenty-four hours for preparation are allowed in this case also.

Similarly, in the *agrégation des sciences mathématiques*, the final tests are:—

(1.) A lesson on "elementary mathematics" after three hours of preparation, without access to books or notes.

(2.) A lesson on "special mathematics" after four hours of preparation under the same conditions.

Such tests as the foregoing at least imply that the candidates have devoted some personal reflection to the question of teaching. They further constitute a more or less definite acknowledgment of the necessity of pedagogic training for the secondary schoolmaster; but no light is shed on what means are taken to secure it. As a matter of fact, candidates for the *agrégation* are prepared variously, by private study, by one of the Faculties,

where he is a *boursier*, and lastly by the higher normal school. As to those in the first category, who are probably employed in school work, their practical experience will serve in place of formal instruction. For the bursars, who enjoy their "*bénéfices*" on almost the same terms as the bursars for the *licenciat*, there are the same facilities as these others possess—pedagogic instruction, if the professor sees fit to mingle with his lectures counsels on the methods of teaching (and many do this towards the end of their course),—for some a short period of service in a Secondary School, and, in those centres where provision is made, the liberty to attend special lectures on education. In Paris, *boursiers d'agrégation* in their first year are sent into lyceés to watch and help according to circumstances the professors of the subjects they are studying. M. Marion, moreover, devotes a special series of lectures of an intimate character to candidates for *agrégation*, lectures in which theory is checked by the practice and observation just obtained in the schools. It used to be a condition of entering for the *agrégation* that a candidate, unless he came from the higher normal school, must have served five years in a public secondary in some capacity, and it was held that such a probation was enough to afford all the training in professional aptitude that was needed. In the most recent *programme*, however, I can find no mention of the condition, and conclude that, with the extension of the *bourses de Faculté*, it has been suppressed.

It is on the higher normal school, *l'école normale supérieure*, that the attention of educational reformers in England has been chiefly fixed. As an impression seems to be abroad that the higher normal school itself is an efficient instrument for supplying and training all the secondary schoolmasters required in France it is worth while to describe the institution more in detail. To quote from an official document: "The higher normal school, "established at Paris, is immediately dependent on the Ministry "of Public Instruction. It is intended to train teachers for the "various sections of classical secondary education and of higher "education in the establishments of the State. It comprises "two main divisions, of letters and of sciences. The school "takes none but boarders. Tuition and keep are free. Ad-"mission to the higher normal school is given after a competition "which takes place every year. The number of places is fixed "by the Minister in accordance with the requirements of "education." All pupils must bring a stamped document, containing a written undertaking to serve for 10 years in some department of public instruction. The ordinary course of study lasts three years. The pupil must be a bachelor when he enters, and at the end of his first year he must gain the degree of licentiate. The second year in the section of letters is usually considered to be devoted to the disinterested pursuit of the higher branches of the study he has taken up, in the section of sciences to the preparation for the *licenciat* in another branch.

in the third year all prepare more definitely for the *agrégation*, though, as there is issued no full and formal *plan d'études* for this examination, preparation for it must consist in profound research rather than in cramming. There is accommodation for over 100 pupils, and every year from 30 to 40 are available for drafting into the schools. The intercourse in the classes seems to be of the most intimate description. The pupils are called upon to give lessons, especially in their third year, when the time of their entrance into the profession draws near. They are also to spend a fortnight in some lycée before leaving,—a term considerably shortened from the six weeks that were originally required. The high opinion which the French have of this school,—an opinion justly entertained, for from it have proceeded some of the most prominent savants of the century,—must not prevent us from examining how far it comes up to the ideal of a training college for secondary teachers.

In the first place, the pupils of the higher normal school form an aristocracy among French teachers. Not every one can win the coveted dignity of *agrégé*, and still fewer can pass through the higher normal school. The 30 or 40 who obtain admission each year are the pick of the lycées. As the numbers are so small, the *normaliens* cannot supply all the places vacant in all colleges and lycées in France; and, indeed, they usually consider it a misfortune, if not an indignity, if they are not placed immediately on leaving in at any rate some important provincial lycée. Every lycée, it seems, counts among its teachers some one or two *agrégés* at least, and no doubt many of them are pupils of the higher normal school. But these elect persons gravitate to Paris after a period of service in the provinces, and staff very completely the numerous lycées in the capital and the immediate neighbourhood. Much indirect benefit, no doubt, accrues to the schools in which they are placed by the dispersion of even so few highly-trained young men through France. But the higher normal school cannot be considered, as once it could, as the main recruiting ground of the secondary school teachers in France.

In the second place, the school does not pretend to be a school of pedagogy. There is apparently no study of educational methods as such, no investigation into the history of education, and no stress laid upon psychology in its bearing upon education. *A priori*, one would expect that the highest institute for training the best equipped teachers would form a school of educational thought and research to which the busy schoolmaster would refer for inspiration and guidance. But the object of the school is undisguisedly erudition and personal cultivation. "*Travailler pour soi, voilà l'essentiel à l'école.*" It is hardly concealed in public documents that admission to it is, as it were, an endowment of research, and panegyrists speak with enthusiasm of the possibility of working there for the pure love of study, untainted by any baser motive. The idea of applying the methods

of professional training in vogue in the primary normal colleges to secondary schoolmasters, even in a modified form, is yet of too recent a growth in France to have affected the higher normal school. It is held that, given extensive learning and a complete mastery of the subject you have to teach, the ability to teach it will follow, and M. Marion himself, who cannot be accused of underrating the value of pedagogic instruction, is of opinion that to these "*jeunes gens d'élite*" a few hints and counsels are all that is needed. It can hardly be considered that the service in school of a fortnight and the giving of lessons occasionally in the third year constitute any serious pedagogic training, when there is no "master of method" to superintend the lessons and no regular formal lectures in psychology and the theory of teaching are delivered. The courses of the professor of the science of education, even so far as they are followed by the pupils of the higher normal school, are of too recent a foundation, and attendance is too much a voluntary matter for them to be said adequately to supply the deficit.

In the whole, then, the higher normal school, though a unique institution and admirably adapted for the purpose, hardly corresponds to our preconceived ideas of a normal school, ideas formed from an experience of normal schools for primary schoolmasters. It is, indeed, a *pépinière* or nursery, as it is so often called, where are reared professors for the greater lycées; and but as such, it trains and educates only the favoured few. Some friendly critics accuse it of no longer completely fulfilling the functions for which it was originally intended, of supplying masters for schools in the secondary instruction. A certain proportion of its pupils have constantly been drafted into the higher university education. A small number, some half-dozen or so, are regularly kept on as assistants and demonstrators for two or even more years, in order to enable them to prepare for their doctorate, and then pass into the chair of faculties. Others, again, go to the higher special schools, such as those of Rome and Athens, while some, though not doctors, are employed as assistant or supplementary professors in faculties. Even many of the bulk who do actually teach for a time in the lycées ultimately recruit the ranks of university professors. But as the object of the school is officially announced to embrace the supply of professors for the higher establishment of the State as well as the secondary schools, the criticism that the school is being diverted from its proper purpose does not seem to have very much value.

The masters of the elementary and primary divisions of a secondary school may now be considered. As above stated, the instruction in the divisions resembles primary instruction with the important exception that a modern language is begun. The classes in the primary classes are generally under the charge of regularly trained primary schoolmasters and mistresses drafted for this purpose into secondary education. It may not be out

of place to remark that their training involves a three years residence in a normal school, with regular lessons in pedagogy a regular system of service in a practising school. For elementary classes in communal colleges the certificates of a primary headmaster are required, *i.e.*, the higher *brevet* won in the ordinary course of things at the end of the third year of the training college course, and the "*certificat d'aptitude pédagogique.*" It would seem that the regulations for the staffing of the lower division have not yet reached their final form. A comparatively new certificate, that of "fitness for teaching elementary classes," is demanded of those who wish to be full professors of elementary classes in lycées. It is at this certificate that *maître d'étude* with no ambition for a higher degree than that of bachelor and acting professor of lower classes chiefly aim. It is through it also that capable men pass from primary into secondary instruction, though there is very small hope of their rising above the elementary classes. Whether it be that the *programme* was inspired by those who look upon pedagogic instruction as important, as its recent origin suggests, or its framers had the theory that the less cultivated a master, the more is *pédagogie* required, at any rate the syllabus contains sufficient of the professional element to satisfy the most exacting. The written work includes compositions in the form of lessons on French, history and geography, sciences and mathematics. The oral work comprises a *vivâ-voce* explanation of a piece of French, a lesson of 20 minutes on composition and the formation of sentences at the blackboard, a lesson of a quarter-of-an-hour on geography, and another on history, also at the blackboard. Similar lessons on sciences and mathematics, and finally, a personal examination on "the elementary principles of pedagogy. A quotation from the report of the Board of Examiners in 1892 will be useful in view of the last oral test. "The questions are "chosen among those which should be familiar to a good pro- "fessor of elementary classes; they refer to the theory of "education as well as to the methods of teaching; they bear "upon the interpretation of the syllabus and the government of "a class. We choose them in advance, and the candidates draw "them by lot. When the questions have been treated in due "form, they are followed by observations from the examining "board which corrects mistakes and clears up obscure points. There is no provision for preparing candidates for the certificate; such preparation must all be private. The fact that not much more than 10 per cent. of the candidates are passed indicates that the certificate is to be made as valuable as possible. The benevolently earnest anxiety that the professor shall know how to teach his class contrasts strongly with the almost entire absence of any such precaution in the case of candidates for the *licenciat* and its comparative neglect even in the *agrégation.*

One other certificate calls for a passing notice in a study of the training of French teachers. As the *licenciat* is a

necessary preliminary to the *agrégations* of letters and sciences, a "certificate of fitness for teaching modern languages" was established to stand in the same relation to the *agrégation* of modern languages. The possessor of the certificate may take provisional charge of a class in a lycée and full charge in a communal college. The examination does not necessitate a knowledge of Latin and Greek, and for this reason is often undergone by modern language tutors in primary normal schools. Among the conditions occur some which are of interest from a pedagogic point of view. A lesson is to be given in grammar in the modern language chosen. One of the written tests is a composition in French on some subject connected with the "special pedagogy of modern languages." I give a few examples of the questions and subjects. "What "system of declension (in German) have you adopted in your "classes, and why?" "Pronunciation and accent in a modern "language class." "The teaching of modern languages by the "ear as opposed to teaching by the eye." "Expound in a "general manner the method which seems to you the best for "teaching the vocabulary in Spanish." Although there is no training school for modern languages this emphasis laid upon the theory of teaching them cannot fail, by causing candidates to reflect on their methods, and to collect information, to increase the educational efficiency of the classes.

Hitherto I have concerned myself with the ordinary or classical lycées and colleges. With appropriate alterations all that has been said is true of "modern" schools, and the "modern sides" of classical schools—"special secondary instruction," as it was, until recently, called. There is a *baccalauréat* at the end of the full course, at one of these schools of relatively the same difficulty as the classical degree. There has been also, besides the degree of licentiate in sciences, a special "certificate "of fitness for teaching in modern schools," and a special order of *agrégation*. There was even a separate normal school (*l'école de cluny*) to train professors for the *enseignement spécial*, and a certificate for those who had passed through it. The school was suppressed a few years ago, and now from 1894 onwards the peculiar certificate and *agrégation* are also abolished. These measures do not constitute a neglect of the "modern" education, but rather an elevation of it. For the substitution of the scientific degrees and diplomas of the professors of classical lycées will be a better guarantee that modern schools shall have a staff of cultured men than a general examination in modern subjects, such as qualified for the old certificate of fitness, and the old *agrégation*.

Lycées for girls require to be considered apart. They are strongly differentiated from lycées for boys by the three facts that they were instituted so recently as 1880; that there was no staff of teachers already trained, and that in the curriculum Latin and Greek are omitted. Among other results

following from these differences, the girls' schools and teachers need much more direction and guidance, as there is no tradition of teaching such as exists in boys' schools. In outline, the conditions of admission to the *professorat* are the same as for men. The leaving certificate of a girls' secondary school is the equivalent for the bachelor's degree, and it is noteworthy that instead of it a certificate from the primary normal school is accepted. Instead of the degree of licentiate, which involves a knowledge of Latin and Greek, there is substituted a "certificate of fitness " for the teaching of girls." The examination for it includes a lesson on history of half an hour's duration to be given after a preparation of two hours; but this is the only pedagogic test. The certificate admits the holder to be *chargée de cours* only; to be full professor, she must be *agrégée*. In the *agrégation*, which is divided into two parts, for the order of letters, and for the order of sciences respectively, professional tests have a larger place than in the corresponding competition for men. Thus in the *agrégation* of letters, besides an oral explanation of a French text, there are three lessons, on history, on geography (with a sketch on the blackboard), and on morals. Moreover a *devoir*, or pupil's exercise in literature or grammar is to be corrected orally before the board of examiners. Occasionally in the written work essays are set on educational subjects.

As the recruiting of the professorate of girls' schools is still, so to speak, nursing, in the reports issued by the examining boards, advice is freely offered to the *aspirante* on the method of giving the lessons, and admirable counsels is bestowed with the avowed object of "coaching" those who shall appear as candidates in the future. Most of the *agregées* come from the higher normal school for women at Sèvres. This establishment which was created in imitation of the school for men, differs from the latter in many respects. As the lycées for girls are not as yet by any means so numerous as those for boys, the training school is able to supply professors for vacancies to a far greater extent than in the higher normal school at Paris. Again, although the *agrégation* is by no means to be despised, it is not so hard absolutely as the *agrégations* for men, and as there are only the two orders of letters and science, the specialisation of the men, and consequently the profounder study of a more limited range of subjects are naturally out of the question. Thus the school of Sèvres is not liable to many of the criticisms which may be fairly levelled at the higher normal school at Paris. I cannot discover that more attention is paid to educational methods and theory than at the other school; the facilities for attending the lectures of the Sorbonne on education are certainly far less. In the matters of conditions of admission, length of residence, terms of residence, and the engagement to serve in some department of public education, the normal school for men is closely imitated. It is worthy of remark that while the men undertake

to serve 10 years simply, the women have an alternative form of engagement to *complete* the term of 10 years originally promised in a primary training college. Many primary schoolmistresses do, as a matter of fact, pass into secondary education by this and other means. The higher normal school at Sèvres and the higher normal school at Fontenay-aux-Roses for training mistresses in primary normal colleges are often associated together. There is no essential difference in their respective *programmes*. But to compare the Higher Normal School at Paris with the Normal School of St. Cloud for training tutors for primary normal colleges is out of the question, so radically different is men's secondary education from men's primary education. There is in the above indications sufficient evidence that on the side of the girls a much closer connexion exists between primary and secondary education.

There is one more point which deserves emphasis. It might seem from the description of the professional training of teachers in French secondary schools, that after all it is confined chiefly to masters of elementary classes and women teachers, and even then it is restricted to private work tested by an examination; that in other cases it is casual and accidental, and that the great mass of teachers apart from the pupils of the normal school must be left without guidance except such as is supplied by their native intelligence. But to think so would be to lose sight of an important characteristic of French education in general, the abundance and fulness of *programmes*, and the extreme care with which they are drawn up. Whatever evils may be involved in strict organisation, and however mechanical and arbitrary some of the arrangements may seem, they have the advantage that they help the young professor in the outlines of his work, and prevent him from wandering into indefiniteness. This is of more value, because the headmasters of lycées and communal colleges are not usually counted on the teaching staff; they have often done no teaching and so cannot assist a novice as an English headmaster who has probably mapped out the course of work for himself can assist a beginner. I do not discover that the *programmes* prescribe too minutely what is to be done by the teacher, but to the untrained learner a little guidance is useful; and the directions of the *programmes*, coupled with the consultations in the "masters' meetings," recently made a general custom, will save many an error. Perhaps also the fact that the syllabus is uniform for all public schools throughout France, fatal as it may seem to all individual and local developments unless there be a liberal interpretation of the regulations, will help rather than bewilder a man who has himself been educated in a school similar to that in which he teaches and on lines very similar to those on which his pupils are being taught. In many cases, not only is the syllabus carefully drawn up, but advice is given how certain lessons

should be conducted. There is constant emphasis, for example, on the necessity of avoiding merely verbal teaching in science and of using visible objects and specimens. Excursions to illustrate the courses of geology and botany are recommended. In arithmetic, the exact point at which theoretical teaching should be introduced alongside of the practical teaching is carefully indicated. In the syllabus for girls' schools, a whole page is devoted to directions for teaching to read aloud. I should not omit to mention an admirable volume of instructions and counsels which was issued to all masters upon the publication of the revised syllabus of 1890. The book is a finely written treatise on the outlines of teaching methods and it deals with every department of work in a secondary school. What lends an additional value to all these instructions and *programmes* is, that they are compiled by an educational council of experts, and not by a "department" of administrative officials. The Council represents every educational interest and every grade of teachers in France. The Minister of Public Instruction issues his decrees in conformity with the Council's advice. The constitution of this body lends dignity to the teachers who are represented, and they have the satisfaction of knowing that their work is mapped out for them by men on whose wisdom and experience they can rely.

The military question has had considerable influence on the supply of primary schoolmasters. Before 1889 they were exempt from military service, and when the exemption was removed, the necessary motive to decide many who wavered before entering on a career so little remunerative ceased to operate, and the numbers of candidates for the primary normal schools fell considerably. The same effect has not followed in secondary education. The degrees and diplomas which bar the entrance to the higher grades of the teaching profession acted before 1889 as sufficient impediments to any who desired to take up the work merely in order to avoid the year under the flag. Secondary teachers have been rare on exactly the same level as members of the other professions in regard to military service; under ordinary circumstances they must devote one year to military training.

A few remarks may be made by way of summary and conclusion. As compared with the state of things in England the existence of a system of supplying teachers to secondary schools calls for comment. The care with which the terms of admission to the profession are drawn up, with their safeguards and checks and guarantees cannot but excite our admiration. For to have the methods of entrance so well organised is no small security for efficiency in education. If a man enters with his eyes open, knowing clearly the conditions under which he will serve and be promoted, he is much more likely to prepare himself for the work and to equip himself with everything that can make it successful. The deliberate choice of teaching as a

career, which is almost demanded by the French system must produce the most beneficial effect upon education; while if men drift into the profession or take it up until something better offers, no enthusiasm and scarcely honest and thorough work can be expected.

There is little to find fault with in the intellectual training of the future professor. The first requirement for a higher teacher is a sound secondary education and for a lower teacher a superior primary education. The distinguishing feature of both, as compared with their English equivalent, is the prominence given to the mother tongue and its literature. The second requirement in all but the lower teachers is some specialisation. As the functions in all but the smallest colleges are themselves specialised, the teachers must be prepared accordingly. Hence the subdivisions of the licentiate's degree, and the eight orders of *agrégation*. In all departments the teacher must have have thoroughly mastered the subject he is to teach, and even, if possible, be an expert in it. One result of the specialisation, as Mr. Arnold notices, is that it seldom happens that a teacher has to take a subject with which he is not familiar, and this must minimise the amount of inferior teaching. Much as we may admire the intellectual training of the secondary teacher in France, it must be confessed that the professional training is disappointingly ill-organised. That it is inadequate is conceded by those who are the most earnestly seeking to remedy its defects. There is indeed some testing of skill in teaching by examination; but little provision is made that the candidate shall have been properly instructed. And as to the testing itself, there is the strange paradox that it takes place at the top and bottom of the hierarchy of teachers but not between. The distinguished *agrégés* are tested and so are the humble elementary masters but for the average licentiate, that is, for the average professor in communal colleges and provincial lycées, there is not even a test for which he might prepare by personal reflection or investigation. In the primary system, all masters and mistresses must pass through the normal school. In the secondary system, this is neither necessary nor possible. Comparatively few enjoy the privileges of university preparation for the *agrégation*, and fewer still can enter the normal school. And even in the normal school itself there is very little professional training. The ardour of the students is directed towards purely intellectual pursuits. We do not, perhaps, expect that the *normalien* should have a dreary apprenticeship, but we do look for more attention to educational methods at so renowned a training centre. The truth is that coupled with a genuine conviction that the more cultivated a teacher is, the less he needs of formal instruction in method, there is a prejudice against *pédagogie* as applied to secondary schools. Pedagogic instruction is well for the less cultivated primary schoolmaster or lower-form master, but it is beneath

the dignity of the *professeur de lycée on de collége*. The prejudice has led to the failure of some attempts to introduce lectures on education at university centres. There is now a distinct tendency in the opposite direction. Some of those in high places, like M. Compayré, the rector of the Academy of Portiers, are known to be advocates of a science of education and the university courses that have been started, though attendance at them is compulsory upon none, have justified their existence by the considerable auditory they have attracted. It seems likely that the French love of organisation will set to work here too and that before long it may be true not only of picked teachers, but of the professor, as a whole, that they are "thoroughly trained and tested."

HERBERT WARD.

Memorandum upon the Registration and Training of Teachers in Secondary Schools in the States of the German Empire, by Mr. J. J. Findlay.

ANALYSIS.

PART I.

Mutual relation of the States of the German Empire as regards higher education (§1). Three classes of secondary schools (§2). The principle of "recognition" by the State; the value of a fixed "standard of attainment" for the various classes of "recognised" schools (§3). Recognised schools must only employ certificated teachers (§4). Importance attached to this recognition in the civil and military services—effect upon parents and upon teachers (§5). Possible harm to education arising from the all-powerful influence of Government—deplored by school reformers (§6). State control in Germany is exercised without resorting to schemes of "simultaneous" written examinations (§7).

PART II.

Teachers' Certificates.—(§8). The Prüfungs-Kommission. A. Course of *general* education, commenced in the school (Gymnasium) and continued in the University. The candidate must aim at complete mastery of some one branch of knowledge; he must also have learned something of philosophy and of education (Pädagogik) in relation thereto. B. *The examination.*—No account taken of a University degree. C. The subsequent course of practical training.

PART III.

The Teachers' Training.—Opportunities of training during the University career, in connexion with a few Universities. (Note on the term "Seminar.") Service to research rendered by the University Seminars. Difference of opinion as to their value (§9).

Legal requirements relating to training (§10).

I. The Probejahr.—It has proved to be unsatisfactory (§10).

II. The Royal Pedagogic Seminars of Prussia.—Most of them since 1880 (§11).

III. The new Gymnasial-Seminars and the new compulsory law in Prussia.—*a.* Seminar-jahr *added to* the former Probe-jahr. Official regulations for the conduct of a Gymnasial-Seminar. Its advantages, as contrasted with training at a University (§12).

IV. A combination of methods in vogue at Jena avoids the defects of the Prussian plan. Does the presence of a Gymnasial-Seminar injure the Gymnasium with which it is connected? Opinion of Hofrat Prof. Richter (§13).

Summary of results obtained *from German* experience.

Other classes of teachers employed in secondary schools: *a*. Primary teachers. *b*. Visiting masters (§14).

Over-production of trained secondary teachers (§16).

Training of women teachers and of teachers for special schools (for the blind, for commerce, &c.) (§17).

NOTE.—The only book to which reference is made is the following annual publication:—

Statistisches Jahrbuch der höheren Schulen Deutschlands, Luxenburg und der Schweiz (Part I. Prussia; Part II. The rest of Germany, including Switzerland). XIVth Year. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner, 1893; 3·50 M.

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§1. It is important to observe at the outset, that while each of the German States is independent of the rest for the purposes of Public Instruction, practical considerations make it necessary that the smaller States should follow the lead of the latter in some important particulars: thus, the recent reform in the training of secondary teachers originated by Prussia,* has been at once copied by some of the smaller States, because they can only enable their students to become eligible for posts in Prussian Schools by giving to them a training which the Prussian Ministry of Public Instruction will accept as adequate. Further, the imposition of compulsory military service has brought with it the law of exemption, which releases every boy who attains a certain standard† at a higher school from two out of the three years of service. This law prevails in every State, and therefore imposes a certain amount of uniformity in standards and in modes of inspection.‡

Thus, while the independence of the various States permits of a good deal of variety in method and practice, there are tendencies at work to produce uniformity, so that it is possible in general terms to describe "German" methods and to speak of a "German system" of education, although deviations from the general plan may often present themselves. Further, this general system may be regarded as reaching over a wider area, beyond the German States themselves; Austria, Switzerland, Norway, Sweden, and Holland all present features closely allied to the kind of organisation that we find in Germany proper.

§2. The registration of the teacher involves the registration of the school; the States relation to the former is, in Germany, determined by its relation to the latter. If we classify secondary

* *See* §12 below.

† So called "Einjährigenexamen." Since writing the above, the three years of service have been reduced to two, and thus the burden of this examination is not now so severely felt (August 1895).

‡ *See* Statistisches Jahrbuch der höheren Schulen, pp. V. and VI. 1893–4 (B. G. Teuber, Leipzig). I refer below to this work as Stat. Jahrb.

schools according to the nature of their government we have, roughly speaking, three kinds:—

(*a.*) Government schools, maintained and directed wholly by the "Ministerium."* These are very often old endowments, analogous to our English grammar schools. They are administered very much as a State Department; the headmaster and his colleagues are appointed by the Ministerium, and regard themselves in many respects as civil servants.

(*b.*) Municipal and guild schools, founded or conducted by some local authority. These comprise most of the schools of a more modern type:—Realschulen, technical schools or high schools for girls—arising out of the local needs of the neighbourhood. They are very often subsidised by the State as well as by local funds, and the subsidy of course carries with it the obligation to accept Government regulations, among others, those relating to the employment of certified teachers.

(*c.*) Private schools, the property of a private individual (the type of school supported by a commercial company, so common in England, is never, met with abroad).

It is sometimes supposed that private school education is unknown in Germany, but this is an error; there always have been a large number of institutions, both boarding and day schools, in private hands, and it is held, by educational reformers as well as by State officials, that their existence, under proper supervision, is a benefit and not an evil.

§3. The principal upon which the Kultusministerium in German States relies, in controlling schools which it does not actually administer (*i.e.*, schools in classes (*b.*) and (*c.*) is—to give a *valuable official recognition to institutions* conducted according to rules and methods of which it approves, and to refuse this recognition to such institutions and teachers as choose to remain outside;—a recognition so highly appreciated that it compels all good schools for boys to seek it, and no teacher ventures to embark upon his calling without reckoning with it.

To facilitate this recognition, a well-understood *standard of attainment* is in vogue for the various classes in each type of school understood by parents and the public generally as well as by teachers and officers. Just as in England we understand what is meant by a boy being in the Sixth Form of a good public school, so in Germany the 1st Class, 2nd Class, &c. represent fixed standards of attainment, to which all schools must conform, if they seek public recognition, and the Ministerium holds itself responsible for seeing that these standards are maintained.

* Every State has a Department of Public Instruction, usually associated with that of public worship. *See* Stat. Jahrb. I., VII.–XVIII. II. 2, 242, &c. For each province of Prussia there is also a "Schul-Kollegium."

Two questions arise: (1) How does the Ministerium satisfy itself as to the maintenance of those standards? (2) What is the nature of the public recognition—the inducement offered as a reward to the school for maintaining it?

§4. The Ministerium lays down rules, similar to those with which we are familiar in England in the case of primary education, relating to the warmth and ventilation of schoolrooms, the limits to the numbers permitted to be taught by a teacher, and (what mainly concerns us here) the requirement that the classes shall be taught throughout the day *by teachers recognised* by the Ministerium as qualified to give the instruction, and paid a salary on a par with that paid for similar service in Government schools* (Class (*a.*) above). And the instruction given by teachers must be heard by inspectors from time to time.

Again, the time table of the school must be submitted to the Ministerium as evidence that the school is fulfilling the programme, which its description imposes upon it.

And, finally, the highest forms of all secondary boys' schools are examined for the sake of awarding leaving certificates (Reifezeugnisse).† The examination is mainly conducted by the staff, but an Inspector supervises the work, both oral and written.

§5. The recognition offered by the Government as an inducement arises from the value attached to these certificates—they are essential to the future progress of any boy who seeks employment in the Civil, Military, or Naval services.‡ The various branches of these services are filled, not as with us by competitive examinations, but by selection out of candidates who have the proper "Berechtigung" from a school, showing that they have passed through their classes with credit. The example of the Government is followed largely, not only by corporate bodies, but by private employers of labour—for public opinion in Germany is only too prone to exaggerate the value of school instruction.

Hence we may summarise the attitude of the State as follows:—

To the parent, it says: "We do not positively forbid you to "educate your children ill; you may, if you will, put him to a "school of which we do not approve, and so long as he is not "scandalously ill-taught we shall not actively interfere; but he "will lose all the benefits that we attach to education of which "we *do* approve, he will not escape three years' service in the "army, he will not be admitted to a university or politechnikum "and he will not be eligible for Government employment."

* Information as to *Salaries* is found on pp. XXV., &c. in Stat. Jahrb., and elsewhere *Pensions*, &c, 951.

† Stat. Jahrb., p. 950, &c.

‡ Stat. Jahr, b. 950 (1–4).

To the intending teacher, it says: "We do not compel you to "seek our certificates or to undergo the prescribed course of "professional training, but if you remain uncertificated you will "only be able to teach children whose parents renounce the "advantages which we offer. You will be able to teach neither "in a Government school, nor in any municipal or private school "which works under our recognition; almost your only chance "of employment will be as a private tutor or in conducting a "school for the children of foreigners."

§6. Two observations will here be in place.

Opinion in Germany is unanimous as to the advantage which the country has secured from this method of control—indeed, a German can scarcely understand how any other country should be without it; but there are not a few protests from educational reformers against the uniformity with which the Ministerium in most of the States (and, above all, in Prussia) imposes its views about instruction upon teachers, so as to prevent progress in pedagogic research. Naturally enough, the State official is inclined to regard the existing state of affairs as satisfactory; the reformer, on the other hand, considers every branch of school work as open to revision, and deplores the fetters by which the teacher's initiative is restrained; the teacher, as a trained professional man, ought to be trusted within somewhat wide limits. I think there is sufficient evidence in favour of the reformer's opinion; it is certainly true that the present generation has seen no pioneers of educational thought, *working out* their ideas and ideals *into practice*. The band of teachers who were inspired, first by Rousseau's "Emile" and then by Pestalozzi, seem to have few successors;* Frœbel was the last of them, and the Education Departments of the German States have done their best to drive the kindergarten out of Germany. The rigidity of school law has made independent research almost an impossibility, and yet the progress of pedagogy seems to be as dependent as other sciences upon practical experiment; there is a great expenditure of energy in thinking and in writing upon the whole field of teaching, but little progress is made, except within the circle where the teacher is permitted a free hand. True, this circle is wider than that within which the Education Code† allows the primary teacher to move, or than that within which tradition and the authority of the universities have bound our secondary schools; nevertheless, the teachers of Germany are justified in their complaint that important sections of their professional work are excluded from investigation by the deadening weight of State administration.

§7. Secondly, it should be noted in passing that the entire system of school inspection, involving the maintenance of

* The only centres where freedom in research can be properly conducted are the one or two universities where practising schools are maintained independent of State supervision—the leaders in this movement are all Herbartians (*see* p. 14 below). Hence the line of educational reform in Germany has followed the lead of Herbart and Ziller.

† Of England.

uniform standards throughout the whole country, is conducted *without* introducing the evils of *simultaneous* written examinations, which in England have done so much to destroy the efficiency of teaching, but which we find it so difficult to dispense with. The system, especially that part of it which deals with exemption from military service, *does* bring with it some of the evils of overpressure and of "cram"; but the German schools are not troubled by the requirements of elaborate examination regulations leading up to papers of questions set by external authorities, who have no knowledge either of the teacher or of the school. Indeed, until a boy comes to his last year of school life he does not come directly under the eye of external authorities at all; the Direktor and Lehrercollegium of his school, subject to the occasional inspection from the Ministerium, are trusted to carry out their work in a professional spirit; anything like serious inefficiency or breach of trust is readily exposed in a school community, which has close relations not only to Government, but to a multitude of families jealously anxious for their children's intellectual progress. I make this observation because I believe it to be possible, in this country also, to introduce efficient control over our secondary schools, without burdening either pupils or teachers with new schemes of simultaneous examinations.

§8. *Teachers' Certificates.*—The requirements described above —that every class in a recognised school shall be taught in every branch by a teacher certified as competent for the purpose —imposes upon the Ministerium the duties of registration, and for this purpose every German State, and each of the provinces of Prussia, has its examination committee (Prüfungs-Kommission),* consisting partly of professors, partly of State officials. This Commission takes charge of the candidate from the time when he first presents himself until he has passed through his course of training and is finally certified as "Oberlehrer."

The regulations may be distributed under three heads :—

A. Course of *general study, previous* to entering upon professional work. The candidate's papers must show—

(1) that he has been educated in a first grade school,† gymnasium, real gymnasium, or oberrealschule, from which he has passed with credit as a student in a German university;

(2) that he has spent *at least three* years in study at one or more of the German Universities.

Note.—Most candidates spend four, many five, before presenting themselves for the test.

Teachers are now petitioning to be permitted to spend part of this time at Foreign Universities, for the sake of a wider general culture, as well as for the acquirement of modern languages.

* Stat. Jahrb., pp. VIII.–XVIII. Part B., 240–2, &c.
† Stat. Jahrb. Part B., 950.

(3.) that his studies have comprised—

(*a*) some special branch of scholarship in which he desires to be certified as competent to give the highest instruction, and one or two branches *allied* to this.

Every teacher is certified, not only as generally competent, but as especially qualified in certain branches. Thus one master on a staff may be certified to teach Latin and Greek up to the highest classes, and French up to *Tertia* only—another, mathematics up to *Prima*, and chemistry and physics up to Tertia—both of them being also certificated as "Form-masters" (*Klassenlehrer*) since they are compelled to qualify also in the branches mentioned in the next paragraph.

b) religion, philosophy (ethics and psychology), education,* history, and literature of the Fatherland.

These branches are not imposed as part of the candidate's general education, but as a part of his professional training; the general education† of the teacher is *concluded* when he leaves the gymnasium and enters the university—precisely as is the case with the student of medicine or of law. We may note, therefore, the special reasons which lead the Ministerium to impose these selected studies upon all candidates.

Religion is required owing to the special relations in which the State stands to the Church: the Kultus Ministerium is at the same time the Ministry of Public Worship in most of the States. The examination is always of a serious character, and involves laborious preparation.

Philosophy and Education, unless offered by the candidate as a special study, are tested more generally. The candidate is expected to understand the elements of ethics and psychology as a *foundation* for the studies in education, which he will pursue in greater detail presently. He is expected to have used his opportunities to hear university lectures on *Pädagogik*, especially in its philosophical and historical aspects; courses of this character have been given almost everywhere by professors of philosophy since the days of Kant and Wolff. If the candidate shows a special interest in the subject it will, in some States, be to his advantage; in others it will not, for many influential men distrust the theoretical presentment of educational doctrine by professors who live apart from the school. A candidate, however, who had wholly neglected the subject would be in danger of rejection, and he would never satisfy the Commission if he proved to be unacquainted with philosophy.

* Pädagogik.

† So as far the State regulates it. It is of course recognised that the university student is gaining general culture, as well as technical training, during his university career.

The History, Geography, and Literature of Germany is required of all candidates for a reason analogous to that which requires religion; the foundations of patriotism and civic duty are to be laid in an accurate knowledge of the history and the thoughts of the German people.

The candidate has already shown a knowledge of this subject, as well as of general history, ancient and modern, in the leaving certificate which he has brought from the gymnasium, but this is not considered sufficient for the teacher without a more detailed study of the nation's fortunes.

Here concludes the course of professional study which the candidate must undertake before he presents himself to the Commission.*

B. With certificates showing that the candidate has passed through this course of study, he presents himself for the "Staatsexamen," which is conducted by members of the Commission, or, in part, by professors whom they may nominate for the purpose. The examination is partly oral, partly it consists of theses written by the candidate to show that he has done some independent thinking on the lines of his special studies; very usually a candidate will also be given a subject on which he will be bidden to produce an essay within 48 hours, giving his word of honour that he has written it without assistance except from books. It should be noted that some of the examiners are already acquainted with the candidate before he presents himself for the Staatsexamen. The professors on the Prüfungs Kommission are teachers in the university where the candidate has pursued most of his studies—he has attended their seminary, and they have advised him and watched his progress.

Finally—this Staatsexamen takes no account of the university degree. Teachers are placed on exactly the same footing as clergymen, medical men, or lawyers—each must pass his Staatsexamen before being permitted to practise. If they choose, they can also present themselves before the philosophical faculty of *any* university in Germany for the doctor's degree, and teachers usually do so, for the examination is not so severe as the Staatsexamen, and covers similar ground. If an Oberlehrer is found without the title, the omission is due to poverty for the expenses in fees are considerable; while, however, the title is sought for the sake of social and academic distinction, it is ignored by the law—the universities are not authorised to confer benefits beyond those that properly fall within their province as an academic society.

C. Having passed this examination, the student is admitted to a course of training as a "Schulamts Kandidat."

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* On sending in his name as a candidate he must forward the whole set of certificates to the office of the Prüfungs Kommission.

§9. *The Teachers' Training.*—Hitherto the student has not been compelled by law to interest himself very seriously* in education his main attention has been devoted to "liberal" studies, classics, mathematics, or modern languages, as the case may be. But it is important to notice that students who take a special interest in *Pädagogik* have *opportunities* for pursuing their inquiries during their university career. The liberty allowed to the German undergraduate, of keeping terms in any German university, enables such men to go to Halle, or Leipzig, or Giessen, or Jena, in each of which universities elaborate arrangements are made for "practical" training in school classes, associated with courses of university lectures. There are Professors of Pedagogy in these universities who have charge of a school, or of classes in a school, where students can teach under supervision. At Leipzig and at Giessen, the professor is also headmaster of a large Gymnasium,† at Jena he is given charge of a small Practising School conducted by his assistants solely for the purposes of Pedagogy, while at Halle, a so-called Pädagogium has been in existence since 1700 as a part of the great Franckesche Endowment. In other universities a Professor of Philosophy will frequently give a course of lectures on *Pädagogik* and may also conduct a "Theoretical" Seminar ‡ for the study of the subject by means of papers and discussions, but in these four universities a "Practical" Seminar is arranged, of which criticism lessons form a part, and in which the whole range of school work is brought under review.

These "practical" university seminars have played an important part in the development of higher training. Firstly, they have maintained the close association between pedagogy and philosophy. Training readily tends to be reduced to a system of rules-of-thumb, put together from the limited experience of busy schoolmasters, and to neglect the wider and more permanent issues, to which a right presentment of education must always appeal. Now, in a German university both professor and student are free to contemplate the field at leisure, with less regard to the exigencies of the moment, independent of Government codes or State inspectors; it was in such a seminar that Herbart, when he succeeded to the chair of Kant

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* *See* §8 above.

† *See* below §13.

‡ *Note on the term "Seminar."*—The word is used in two senses, which have to be kept distinct.

1. In a University, a Seminar is a weekly meeting such as all professors conduct with their best students to stimulate discussion and independent investigation

2 The term is also used to describe training colleges for teachers, whether day or boarding.

Thus: Lehrerseminar=Primary Training College.

Gymnasialseminar=Training college for secondary schoolmasters, connected with a Gymnasium.

A training course conducted by a university professor of Pedagogy (Ein pädagogisches Universitäts-Seminar) partakes of both characters.

at Königsberg,* gathered round him the band of students who have developed his ideas into the science of education, as it is understood in Germany to-day.

Secondly, they have been pioneers, working out by experiment the problem with which we are here concerned, as to how young men may best be trained for the work of higher teaching; they have attracted the promising undergraduates, who in later life have become either distinguished headmasters, directing gymnasial† seminars, or have served as directors of primary training colleges.

Now many university professors are of opinion that the whole business of higher training ought to be conducted on this model:—establishing chairs of pedagogy, with practising schools attached, in every university. Other professions—medicine and law—look to the university for practical as well as theoretical training, why should it not also serve for the teaching profession? Their argument is strengthened by the development of university activity, which recent years have witnessed; not only are medical and dental students provided with "practical" seminars, associated with hospitals and "cliniks," but natural science students and students of agriculture have now their laboratories, all directed by professors in "practical" seminars.

On the other hand, the prevailing opinion among headmasters is, that the "practical" side of training can only be imperfectly undertaken by a university department, and that the detailed study of school practice should be delayed until the student has closed his university career. The question cannot be regarded as finally settled, but *for the present* the action of Prussia in 1890‡ has opposed the professorial view; the work done in the four universities will no doubt develop, and is likely to be imitated elsewhere, but in the eyes of school law, it will continue to be regarded as affording opportunities to the best men rather than as a plan on which the *mass* of teachers are to receive training. In what respects, then, is higher training a matter of compulsion and not of choice?

§10. The *Legal Requirements* relating to training:—

I. *The Probejahr.*—For more than 50 years every intending teacher, after passing his *Staatsexamen*, has been sent to a gymnasium or other secondary school for a trial year, called the Probejahr.§ He is not paid any salary, but is attached to the staff, teaching for a few hours every week, and learning what he can from the headmaster and his colleagues. During the year he produces a few pedagogic theses and is expected to acquaint himself with the work of the various classes of the school, and particularly with those branches of instruction in

* 1809–1833. † *See* below, §12. ‡ Described below, §12.

§ The Probejahr is described by Mr. Storr, in his evidence before the House of Commons Committee on the Teachers' Training and Registration Bills, 1891, pp. 131, 132, of Special Report.

which he is certified as a scholar.* At the close of the year a report upon his progress is submitted to the *Prufungs-Kommission* by the headmaster in conjunction with the staff (Lehrerkollegium), and he is then certified as "*Oberlehrer.*"

This year of trial has been more or less useful according to circumstances. Under a headmaster of ability, ready to take an interest in training, the *Probejahr* might be of the greatest benefit; but very often the *Probekandidat* has learned little more than if he had been put to full work with full pay. True, he has had the benefit of looking round upon every department of school work, and the headmaster has the responsibility of giving him hints, and of putting him into the ways of the place; but very little has come of the plan, and dissatisfaction with its results has always been felt. It has had, however, one great advantage: if a young man is a hopeless failure, the headmaster and staff refuse to recommend him at the year's end, to the mutual advantage both of the candidate and of the schools.

This *Probejahr* may then be regarded as the first step in the development of an efficient system of training on the "practical" side, and it represents the *low-water* mark of achievement in the German States. Several of the German States have for many years made better provision. Thus, in Hessen and in the Kingdom of Saxony, where there exist universities† above alluded to, with a chair of pedagogy and a "practical" seminar the *Ministerium* has compelled students to join this seminar for one or more terms, either before or after passing the *Staatsexamen.*

§11. *The Royal Pedagogic Seminary in Prussia.*

11. In Prussia another method has been adopted, which has provided training for about 70 students. Twelve institutions, called *Königliche pädagogische Seminare,*‡ have been founded, with scholarships (Stipendia), to assist students who attend them. Most of them were established, or reorganised, about 1880, when the feeling of dissatisfaction with the *Probejahr* began to be widely felt. These Seminars consist of a director and from five to ten students, who practise in one or more secondary schools in the neighbourhood; in several cases the Direktor is also head of a gymnasium. The feature to be noted about these Seminars is that they are wholly unconnected with a university, although several of them are in university towns; two or three of them are open only to classical men; one, in Berlin, is confined to modern language teachers.§

Thus, about 20 per cent. of the best candidates offering in Prussia have been provided for, and elsewhere in Germany a few similar Seminars may be found; but in no case have they supplied

* pp. 117–119, above.

† Leipzig and Giessen above referred to, for Giessen, *see* Stat. Jahrb., II.

‡ Stat. Jahrb., XVIII.–XXI.

§ I am told that these Royal Seminars have taken little interest in Pedagogy:—Their work has been mainly in Classical or Modern Philological studies.

the wants of all candidates, and the *Probejahr*, up to within the last three years, has been the simplest mode of fulfilling Government requirements with respect to training.

§12. III. *The new Gymnasial Seminar* in Prussia.—The importance of the reform of 1890* lies in the fact that it compels *all* candidates to take a year of real training in a properly organised Seminar; and this IN ADDITION TO AND BEFORE the *Probejahr*. The Kultus Ministerium of Prussia would, it seems, have adopted this compulsory rule long before, if it had seen its way to organise the training for all its candidates. It determined finally to extend the method already adopted in the Royal Pedagogic Seminary, and to disregard the claims of the universities to share in training. An invitation was given to some 40 of the ablest headmasters to establish small Seminars in connexion with the staff of their schools. A small increase of salary was assigned to the headmaster and to those of his assistants who joined him in the care of these young men.

The Prussian candidates are now distributed in classes of from 4 to 10 students among some 50 to 60 Seminars, the 12 of earlier endowment, and the 40 set on foot in 1890.

It is often asked, in what respect does this *Seminarjahr*, now imposed as an additional year of training, differ from the *Probejahr*, since both are under the direction of headmasters. The difference lies in the elaborate regulations made by the Ministerium to ensure that the training is effective, and in the provision of proper time† and proper remuneration† to those who assist in it. According to the official regulations, the headmaster and his staff are responsible for the following:—

(1.) A complete course of study and reading, with informal lectures and discussions on pedagogic principles in their application to secondary schools, particularly dealing with those branches in which the candidates are specially qualified to teach. School administration, and school hygiene not to be lost sight of. Importance to be attached to recent pedagogic literature.

(2.) Associated with this study there must be systematic practice in teaching, going from the bottom of the school to the top, with weekly discussions presided over by the Direktor.

(3.) The candidates to have the same status as the permanent staff, and to attend its weekly meeting,‡ to join in all assemblies and other school functions, games, festivals, school tours, and the like.

(4.) Towards the close of the year, the candidates are to write essays on subjects assigned by the Direktor, who finally sends to the Ministerium a full report of the year's work.

* Stat. Jahrb., XXI., XXII.

† It is said, however, that in many of these new Gymnasial-Seminars neither the time nor the remuneration are adequate to a right performance of these new duties.

‡ Lehrerkonferenz; required by law to be held weekly in every German school.

Thereupon the Ministerium will appoint each candidate, either to the same or to some other school, for a *Probejahr*.

In the eyes of headmasters the great merit of this plan is that they are training assistants *after their own style*, it is the advantage of the apprentice system as contrasted with the technical institute. Every school has its own way of doing things, and a good staff will be willing to take trouble with candidates, in the hope of filling vacancies, as they occur with the best of them. A better argument in favour of this Gymnasial Seminar as opposed to a university seminar, is that it brings the student into *daily contact with children*. There is a great temptation to theorise upon educational topics, and the speculative character of university studies encourages the tendency; the best corrective to it is to be placed much among children and to be trained to observe them in daily intercourse. This personal interest in boys seem very difficult to young men while they are still engaged in university studies, and yet they cannot safely pursue pedagogy in the absence of it.

§13. IV. *The combination of methods employed in Saxe-Weimar.*—The Duchy of Saxe-Weimar is one of the smaller states which has followed the lead of Prussia, compelled by the practical difficulty alluded to in §1. It has established a gymnasial seminar in connexion with the gymnasium at Jena, but it has also aimed to supply the defects of this method by associating the training of its students with the chair of pedagogy in the university.* Every Schulamts-Kandidat in Saxe-Weimar is compelled to spend his Seminarjahr at Jena, which has for many years been a chief centre of pedagogic study, and is at present the only university which grants funds to conduct a practising school. Now the weakness of the Prussian Gymnasial-Seminar lies in the fact that it is conducted by a headmaster and staff who have left their speculative studies behind them, and are likely to ignore the scientific aspects of education and to depreciate the value of research. The Weimar Ministerium has therefore sought to avoid this danger, and, from close personal observation, I am enabled to form a high opinion of the result. By working in the Gymnasium the students become familiar with the specific character of Gymnasial teaching, but *at the same time* they are following the training of the University Seminar, where they mix with teachers of many types, foreign as well as German, and take their share in prosecuting inquiries and experiments. Thus the narrowing tendency of the Gymnasial Seminar is corrected by the free and critical spirit prevailing in the University Seminar and the tendency to undue academic speculation in the latter is balanced by the daily routine among teachers of experience in the Gymnasium.

* Now filled by Professor Rein, the leader of the Herbartian School. The Herbartians have been the main supporters of practical training in the University, as opposed to the merely speculative and theoretical treatment of Pedagogy by Professors of Philosophy or Theology, *apart from* practical work. (*See* page 122 above).

NOTE.—An objection is often raised to the training of teachers by giving them practice in school classes, that the teaching * suffers too seriously: parents, it is said, do not send their boys to school to be practised upon by novices. It is not my place to argue the question here; but I may point out that the danger is minimised in these Gymnasial Seminars by *limiting* the number of students. Ten is the maximum allowed by the law. Now, 10 students teaching only for 10 hours a week each, in a school of 300 to 400 boys, will not seriously injure the instruction, even if it be granted that these criticism lessons *do* prove to be injurious. The benefit of the plan to the staff is undoubted. Hofrath Richter, the headmaster of the Jena Gymnasium, reports as follows in his *Jahresbericht* for 1891–2:—
"The boys have quickly become accustomed to the presence of a "few students in the classroom, and, indeed, we observe a "stimulus to their attention and interest when I myself or one "or two of my colleagues are also present. And the Seminar "has certainly had a beneficial effect upon the work of the "staff: the masters have the strongest inducement both to "prepare their lesson notes with care and to impart their "instruction effectively, since they are to be heard by the "Seminar students."

§14. The following will, perhaps, summarise the results of German experience in training up to the present:—

a. There are two organisations to which the charge of training secondary teachers should be entrusted: the university and the best schools. Neither of these can do the whole work alone. If the university attempts training its professor should have some kind of a practising school; if a secondary school establishes a training department, it must see to it that theory, based upon philosophy, is provided beforehand or side by side with the training.

b. Comprehensively considered, training covers the whole period of study from the time when the intending teacher leaves school. But the first portion of this period of study (for a degree, or the like) should be conducted, if possible, apart from professional training proper, and, for secondary teachers, should undoubtedly be undertaken at the university.

c. Training cannot be accomplished by a course of private reading followed by an examination; a teacher's certificate is only of value when it shows that the student has been instructed in the science and art of teaching. The certificates of responsible instructors, professors, or headmasters, showing that the student has done every part of his training under their oversight, should be an indispensable requirement before registration; an examination, oral or written, can only be regarded as supplementary.

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* The progress of the boys.

d. While a comparatively easy gate may be left open for the registration of the ordinary teacher, it is essential to progress that opportunities for advanced training and for the best quality of work be afforded in universities, which should be the appropriate centres for research, in pedagogy as in other fields of professional study.

§15. The above account has dealt with the ordinary secondary schoolmaster (Oberlehrer), but two other classes of teachers are employed in secondary schools:—

**a.* Primary teachers (Volkschullehrer), who have been trained in primary training colleges, and who can qualify to teach the lower forms of a gymnasium, or to teach certain branches, by passing an appropriate examination. In the *Gymnasien* and *Realschulen* about 20 per cent. of the whole staff are perhaps drawn from the ranks of the primary teachers; in the third grade schools (*Höhere Bürgerschulen*) more than half.

The *Oberlehrer* is always a university man, the Volkschullehrer is not and cannot be, but he has very often received a better pedagogic training,† and he is placed on a full level of equality with the rest of a Gymnasial staff, if he takes a post in a gymnasium instead of remaining in primary work. I do not intend to deal further with the training of these teachers, because this would fall more properly under an account of primary education.

b. Teachers of special branches, such as drawing and music (Fachlehrer or Technische Lehrer),‡ not regarded as a part of the staff (Lehrer-Kollegium), but certified as belonging to their own profession, as teachers of music or art teachers. These must be certified, like the rest, by the authority of the Ministerium, not only as artists *but as competent teachers of their art;* their training is regulated by rules applicable to their profession; they must have studied at a *Conservatorium* or a *Gewerbeschule*§ or the like.

§16. It remains to be pointed out that the States of Germany, in undertaking the control of teachers' training, have done nothing to provide that the teacher, when trained, shall find employment. The same is true, of course, in other professions. In England we meet with many educated men who cannot find employment, but in Germany there are far more to be found, and they have not only been highly educated, but have been severely trained. Many *Oberlehrer*, unable to find a post in a secondary school, have in recent years been admitted as teachers in primary schools; not a few have emigrated; finally, the Ministerium in Prussia‖ and in other States have made an effort to discourage young men from coming forward as candidates, in

* Stat. Jahrb.,251.

† Out of the six years of training required for primary teachers, two are almost entirely given up to pedagogy—practical and theoretical.

‡ Stat. Jahrb., 951, &c.

§ School of art or technical college.

‖ Stat. Jahrb., 951 (4). Compare the year 1888–9 with the year 1891–2.

order to reduce the supply to a level with the annual number of vacant posts. The question is, in fact, being raised in Germany whether the public authority, which registers teachers by compelling them to a prolonged course of training, should not look forward to their future, and recognise some sort of obligation to find employment for them. Definite action by means of a school law is difficult, and to raise the standard of attainment unduly is unjust,* because it injures the candidates by excessive strain; but the excessive competition of an overcrowded profession is equally injurious, and, in the schools, it produces evils from which both teacher and child have to suffer; the evils are perhaps not so apparent in Germany as in England, because of the control of higher education; but this cause has not suppressed the mischief, although it has modified the form of it.

§17. *The Training of Women Teachers*, and of Teachers in Special Schools.

The influence of women upon German education is very small, and men teachers continue to shut them out from the more important posts in girls' high schools; some who in theory believe in the value of women as teachers, consider that it unwise to encourage them at present in Germany, so long as a large number of trained men are without employment. Hence the principalship and the best paid posts in girls' schools are occupied by men,† although many instances may be found where lady-principals are permitted, especially in semi-private schools, which are subsidised very often by town councils.

A woman in Germany cannot aspire to the highest rank in any profession, for the university is the only gate to the professions, and she is almost universally excluded from university studies; hence her only path to a teacher's certificate lies in seeking training in a primary training college for women teachers (Lehrerinnen Seminar). After this course, women students usually spend some years in England and France if they aspire to teach in high schools. The only other method of training is to gain admittance to one of the Seminars which, in a few cases, have been attached to girls' high schools of reputation on the plan of the Gymnasial Seminar.

Finally, it should be added that all kinds of special schools—for the blind, for the deaf and dumb,‡ as well as commercial and technical institutions,§ come under the inspection of the Ministerium, and hence the teachers of these institutions are required to be equipped with appropriate qualifications. Thus the endeavour is made to extend the benefit of public oversight to every branch of education.

May, 1894. J. J. FINDLAY.

* It is no secret in Prussia that that *Probejahr* has been maintained as a sequel to the new *Seminarjahr* in order to make the career more difficult, and thus to reduce the competition at the expense of the candidate's time and means.

† Stat. Jahrb., I. 833–1181. ‡ Stat. Jahrb., I. 733–832. § II. 96–104, &c.

Memoranda from Members of the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, Durham, and Victoria.

CIRCULAR LETTER.

SIR, 6, Old Palace Yard, S.W.

I AM directed by Mr. Bryce to say that the Royal Commissioners on Secondary Education will be greatly obliged if you will favour them with an expression of your opinion upon any of the topics included in the enclosed paper of queries, with regard to which you may have special experience, or in which you may be specially interested.

I may add that your opinion is requested primarily for the information and guidance of the Commissioners, and that none of your answers will be published without your express permission.

I am, Sir,
Your obedient servant,
WILLIAM N. BRUCE,
Secretary.

GENERAL CIRCULAR.

POINTS ON WHICH IT IS DESIRED TO OBTAIN THE OPINION OF PERSONS CONNECTED WITH THE WORK OF THE UNIVERSITIES.

1. College scholarships and exhibitions:
   - (*a.*) What are the effects on schools of present application of funds, and methods of competition?
   - (*b.*) Are restrictions on eligibility desirable in the interests of poor students or special areas?
2. What is your opinion of the working of the local examinations, joint board, and extension delegacies, syndicates, or committees (as the case may be) in relation to Secondary Education?
3. How far are the present arrangements of Secondary Education in due correlation with those of the universities?
   - (*a.*) Generally.
   - (*b.*) Specially, with regard to—
     - (1.) Poor students.
     - (2.) Girls.
     - (3.) Students requiring technological instruction?
4. To what extent, in your knowledge, are teachers of secondary schools of various types provided by the universities?
5. What part (if any) ought the Universities to take in the training of secondary teachers?
6. What effect (if any) has the introduction of the non-collegiate system had upon Secondary Education? What effect may it, in your opinion, be made to have?
7. What has been the influence of the universities on the preparation of students for the Public Services?

Memorandum by Mr. R. L. Abbott, Mr. J. B. Baker, and Mr. G. N. Richardson.

To the Commissioners of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education.

Introductory.

In accordance with the request conveyed to me in the letter of the Hon. W. N. Bruce of May 5th last, I have conferred with Mr. Baker and Mr. Richardson, and have now the honour to submit to you a brief statement of our opinions. We have confined our attention to Question No. 6, as being the subject with which we are most intimately acquainted.

The effect of the introduction of the non-collegiate system upon Secondary Education may best be estimated, perhaps, by (1) a review of the history of the movement in Oxford; (2) a statement of the system of education adopted; and (3) a consideration of the possible extension of which it seems capable, together with the means by which such extension may be attained.

It may be thought that much of what follows deals rather with the internal management of the Oxford Delegacy than with the question of Secondary Education in England at large. But as the main lines of the development of the non-collegiate system have been already determined by the successful experience of the last 26 years, further progress is to be attained by the careful consideration of matters of detail rather than by the statement of more general principles.

I.—The history of the non-collegiate movement in Oxford.

I.—*Summary of the History of the Work of the Non-Collegiate Delegacy in Oxford.*

(i.) Its object;

We venture at the outset to call your attention to a brief review of the history of the non-collegiate body up to the present time. The Delegacy was founded in 1868 "to furnish "academical status and instruction to poor men seeking to be "ordained as clergymen, to become practitioners in law or "medicine or to enter into business;" or, in the words of the late master of Balliol College, to offer the advantages of a university education to those who could not afford the expenses of collegiate life. A brief summary of the facts contained in the last report issued by the Delegacy will show the work done during the last 25 years, that is, up to October 1893. During that time 2,279 persons have become non-collegiate students—2,035 by matriculation, and 244 by migration— and the average number of entries may now be taken as about 100 a year. The fact that so large a number of young men have taken advantage of the system proves conclusively that the relaxation of the Laudian Statute, by which all undergraduates were required to reside in the colleges or halls, has met a very decided want in our educational system.

(ii.) Number of students;

If, too, we follow the fortunes of the students who have matriculated as non-collegiate, it will be found that a high per-centage of them, including those who have subsequently migrated to colleges or halls, have distinguished themselves in the various honour examinations of the university. No fewer than 632, or about 30 per cent. have obtained places in the class lists of the first and second public examinations. Of the rest of the students, a very large majority have obtained a pass degree; and the number of absolute failures (averaging about 7 or 8 per cent.) has not been higher than under the circumstances might fairly be expected. But it is noticeable that those who have failed have diminished in number as the system of tuition arranged by the Delegacy has been improved.

(iii.) Success in university examinations;

At first the delegates were disposed to throw open the benefits of an university education to any persons who were, or were supposed to be, desirous of taking a degree. Frequently such persons were so ignorant that they were unable to profit by an university education, and the Delegacy did not provide for them any tuition. From the time, however, when the tuition of the non-collegiate students was organised by the delegates, the number of students who have migrated from the non-collegiate body to colleges has rapidly diminished, especially from the time when the late master of Balliol College was vice-chancellor. Of his service to our body it seems almost impossible to speak with sufficient gratitude, and we venture to think that the reason of his successful endeavour to raise the status of non-collegiate students lay mainly in the fact that he steadfastly held that they should have all the advantages enjoyed by undergraduates belonging to a college, without the expenses incidental to collegiate life. As a means to this end he induced the university to erect the buildings which are now the headquarters of the Delegacy; he secured for our use excellent lecture rooms in the examination schools, and finally, with the assistance of the late censor—now rector of Exeter College—organised a general scheme of tuition, both for students reading for pass and for honour examinations.

(iv.) Growth of a tutorial system;

(v.) Consequent decrease in the number of migrations to colleges;

No doubt the stress of hard times may to some extent have prevented undergraduates migrating to colleges, but the chief credit of the decline from 60 to 33 per cent. is due to Professor Jowett and to the reforms which he brought about. He heartily sympathised with those members of the body who deplored the practice of migration, and expressed his conviction that better organisation and better tuition would remedy the evil.

This is strikingly borne out by the fact that, from the introduction of a definite tutorial system, the number of migrations has steadily fallen. Indeed, in the report about to be issued for the year 1893–94, it will be found that the number has reached a point lower than in any year since 1870–71, when the number of undergraduates was much smaller than at present.

(vi.) Educational development throughout England has not been followed by proportionate increase in the number of non-collegiate students.

In spite of this development of the tutorial system, and the consequent increased educational advantages which the Delegacy can offer to its students, it is noticeable that during the last 10 years, which have been marked by extraordinary educational development throughout England, the number of students who have availed themselves of the advantages offered by the Non-Collegiate Delegacy does not seem to have proportionately increased. This would seem to show that the system has not as yet obtained full recognition from the various educational agencies in the country; the main question, therefore, which has to be met by those who believe, as we do, that the non-collegiate system is capable of far wider expansion, is to consider how the work of the Delegacy may be brought more closely into connexion with the work of other educational agencies existing at the present time.

Summary of the history of the Delegacy; lessons to be learnt therefrom.

This brief summary of the history of the work of the Delegacy seems to show very conclusively—

(1.) That, as so many students have availed themselves of the educational advantages offered to them by the non-collegiate system, the usefulness and even necessity of the work done by the Delegacy seems most clearly to be proved.

(2.) That, as the tuition provided by the Delegacy has been organised and systematised, there have been concurrent improvements in the general character of the students who have matriculated, and there has been a marked falling off in the numbers of those who have migrated to colleges or halls.

This seems really to mean that the non-collegiate system is a valuable complement to the educational system already existent in England, but that it must be brought more closely into connexion with other and more scattered agencies of Secondary Education throughout the country.

II.—Present organisation of the system.

II.—*The present Organization of the Non-Collegiate System.*

(i.) The Delegacy.

In Oxford the control of the non-collegiate students is entrusted to a Delegacy consisting of five *ex officio* members, the vice-chancellor, senior and junior proctors, the censor of the non-collegiate students, and the Controller of the Delegacy for licensing lodging-houses, and of seven members, six of whom are elected or nominated by various bodies in the universities.

(ii.) The censor.

The discipline and tutorial arrangements are entrusted to the censor, and with him are associated two tutors who are appointed by the delegates, and have charge of those students who are reading for the various pass examinations. The censor is also required by statute to give instruction to the students under his care.

(iii.) Tuition, (*a.*) in honours;

The tuition of those students who are reading for any of the honour examinations in the university is entrusted to no less

than 13 graduates, who are, however, under the present regulations, not required to give more than half an hour's individual tuition a week to each pupil under their care. The honour students have also the advantage of being able to attend the ordinary university lectures other than those delivered by professors, on the subjects which they may happen to be reading. The pass students attend lectures delivered to them, either by the censor and the two tutors appointed by the Delegacy, or by other lecturers in the university, as may be arranged. (*b.*) in pass subjects.

The Delegacy have at their disposal certain exhibitions granted to them by the munificence of various bodies or individuals, which are chiefly given on examination to undergraduates who have previously been matriculated. Many of these exhibitions are practically obtainable only by those who are reading or intend to read for honour schools. (iv.) Exhibitions.

It should be added that the delegates have provided an excellent library for the use of their students. (v.) Library for students.

III.—*The possible Extension of which the Non-Collegiate Work in Oxford seems capable, together with the Means by which such Extension may possibly be attained.* III.—Possible extension of the system.

(1.) The composition of the Delegacy.

As it is of the greatest importance that the work of the non-collegiate body in Oxford should be brought closely into touch with the educational interests and educational ideas outside Oxford, it seems very desirable that there should always be on the Non-Collegiate Delegacy some official representatives of all the various bodies in Oxford which have connexion with the education of the country at large. Such, for example, are the University Extension Delegacy, the Local Examinations Delegacy, and the Day Training College Delegacy. (i.) The Delegacy :— (*a.*) its composition;

And as the non-collegiate body has now acquired a well-established position in Oxford, it would seem to be quite in accord with the liberal spirit of the university, for one or more representatives of the tutorial staff to be appointed to serve on the Delegacy. In this way the administrative and educational sides of the delegates' work would be brought into closer connexion than at present. [See Note, p. 137.]

(2.) The organisation of the Delegacy.

The work of administration and organisation of so large a number of students (the number of resident undergraduates being equal to that of the largest colleges in Oxford) falls entirely upon the censor, and it seems desirable that he should therefore be relieved from the necessity of delivering lectures, which at present he is bound to do by the statute under which the Delegacy was formed. And it may be added that the stipend of the censor is quite inadequate for the social demands which must necessarily fall upon him as the head of a body consisting of 30 resident graduates and over 200 undergraduates. (*b.*) organisation of its work;

(c.) tutorial arrangements.

(3.) The tutorial arrangements of the Delegacy.

We have already noticed the means by which the tuition of the undergraduates is carried on, and there can be no doubt that the system already in existence on the whole works very satisfactorily. At the same time we venture to think that it might be made of still greater service to the cause of education at large.

Economical,

To proclaim to the country that an university education can now be obtained for the sum of six guineas a year, plus the amount required for university dues and costs of living, estimated by the delegates at about 45 pounds a year, is one thing; but to be able to state with confidence that a non-collegiate undergraduate can have for that sum all that is commonly understood by an university education is another. The funds at the disposal of the Delegacy are only sufficient to enable them to provide tuition on the most economical basis, and yet something more than tuition is expected of them by the country generally. An Oxford graduate should be a man of culture and refinement, which can only be acquired by social intercourse with cultivated men during residence in Oxford.

but incomplete;

This, as Mr. Matthew Arnold pointed out, is the chief function of university education. The non-collegiate students as much as, or even more, than other undergraduates, need this refining influence of social intercourse with their tutors; and yet, from the nature of things, they are especially cut off from it. Living as they do in lodgings, scattered all over Oxford, it is difficult to stimulate that corporate feeling and sense of unity which tend to create feelings of loyalty to the university and to one another, and it is even more difficult to devise means of social intercourse between the teacher and the taught. This is especially true with regard to undergraduates who are reading for honour examinations. The organisation of the honour tuition is without doubt as complete as the present income of the Delegacy will allow, and the honour tutors are known to show the greatest consideration and generosity towards their pupils; but it can hardly be expected that a tutor, in half an hour's individual supervision a week, can be very successful in helping the student, whose early education has been incomplete, to grapple with his peculiar difficulties. We think that the result is often discouraging to both tutor and student. When the Delegacy shall have sufficient funds to remunerate the honour tutors, or some of them, on a more liberal scale, we feel sure that a marked change for the better will be observed in the class lists of the different schools. For each individual school a separate tutor should be appointed, who would be responsible for the work of all the students reading for that school; excepting in the honour school of lit. hum, in which the two parts, hist. and phil., are naturally separate. This reform might be gradually introduced by beginning with such schools as are most generally read by non-collegiate undergraduates. The tutors would be able to give more time to the actual work of teaching, and the grouping

especially in honours;

of pupils would enable them to economise time and energy by preventing unnecessary repetition. The more intelligent of the non-collegiate students would also feel themselves to be in closer touch with the teaching staff of the body to which they belong.

and especially in the need for combination of tutors,

There is at present a great want of cohesion and combination among the members of the teaching staff. The honour tutors are scattered throughout the university, and have no common interests in the work which they undertake for the Delegacy. The lecturers for the pass examinations who devote themselves entirely to the work of Delegacy never necessarily meet or have any connexion with any of the honour tutors, and especially of honour pass tutors. This prevents the growth of any common feeling among the teachers employed by the Delegacy. Further, the work of these lecturers is confined entirely to teaching the subjects required for the various pass examinations in the university. This separates markedly the honour from the pass student, which is in itself an evil, and it seems desirable that the honour and pass work should, so far as is possible, be entrusted to the same persons, This must be done without in any degree impairing the efficiency of the pass tuition, which, owing to the peculiar position of the non-collegiate students, must always remain the most considerable part of the work of the Delegacy. This combination of the honour and pass tutor is the more important, as we feel confident that, as the non-collegiate system is brought more closely in touch with the higher educational work in the country, the supply of men capable of reading for the honour schools will be largely increased, and as time goes on the services of the pass tutors must inevitably be utilised for some department of honours work.

particularly of honour and pass tutors.

Need of increased funds at the disposal of the Delegacy, which may be met by increased tuition fees.

Such increased organisation of the tutorial staff would necessitate increased funds at the disposal of the Delegacy. To meet this difficulty of insufficient means, we venture to think that the tuition fee, now two guineas a term, might without detriment to the best interests of the students be increased (say) to three guineas; the extra expense being more than counterbalanced by the additional educational benefits which would be gained by the students. If persons are to be invited to take their degrees as non-collegiate students, it seems to us of first-rate importance that the body to which they are invited to belong should, by the perfection of its tutorial system, occupy a high position in the university. The delegates should, indeed, provide all that is essential for an university education, though the peculiar circumstances of the undergraduates render it essential that the fee should be kept as low as possible. It is not unusual for any person mentioning the advantages of the non-collegiate system to be met by the retort that there must be some considerable disadvantages to account for the difference in the costs of a collegiate and non-collegiate education. These disadvantages necessarily exist in regard to social matters, but

in regard to education, the Non-Collegiate Delegacy should be in a position as good as, if not better, than that of the colleges.

(*d.*) The non-collegiate system ought to form a link between secondary and university education.

(4.) Although a large number of poor students have matriculated as non-collegiate, the system does not seem to have formed any close connexion with the various agencies for Secondary Education, such as higher grade schools and the like. This connexion, if it could be completed, is, perhaps, the most valuable work which the delegates can do, and any suggestions by which it can be brought about should be carefully considered. In spite of the small cost of a university career to a non-collegiate undergraduate—estimated at 50*l.* 8*s.* 6*d.* (see information paper issued by the Delegacy, page 9), many persons who might profit by the higher education of the university are prevented from matriculating through want of means to enable them to live in Oxford without assistance even for a part of their university career. Certain exhibitions already exist to aid poor students, but such are mostly held by persons already members of the university, and do not consequently attract persons from outside What is wanted is that the Delegacy should be able to offer a considerable number of exhibitions, to be competed for by persons who have not yet matriculated. This, at present, cannot be done through want of means, but we believe that if it could be done it would form a very valuable link between the university and Secondary Education.

(*e.*) The university day training college may help to form such a link.

(5.) The University Day Training College.

Another possible connexion between the university and Secondary Education exists in the University Day Training College, founded two years ago under the management of a specially appointed Delegacy. There is no organic connexion between this and the Non-Collegiate Delegacy; but, as many of the members of the Day Training College matriculate as non-collegiate students, for economical reasons, it seems likely that the work of the two delegacies must be intimately connected. If the Day Training College is to be successful, it is essential that the university examinations, which present sufficient difficulty in themselves to the Day Training College students, should as far as possible be accepted by the Education Department as qualifying for the certificate. This would enable the students to profit more by their university course of study than is now possible, where they are constantly distracted by Government examinations.

As the Queen's scholarship examination is of different standard from that of the ordinary matriculation examination, it is desirable that the students should receive regular tuition in the compulsory subjects of university examinations before they come to reside in Oxford.

(*f.*) Desirability of giving instruction in the theory and art of teaching.

(6.) As a very large per-centage of non-collegiate students become teachers, it would be of great service to them, and benefit to those whom they teach in later life, if the Delegacy were able to give them during their residence in Oxford the

means of obtaining instruction in the theory and art of teaching. Such an extension of their work would necessarily be slight at the outset, and should not involve the delegates in any expenses which could not be met by the fees charged to students.

Conclusion.

It will be seen that the real difficulty in connexion with the work of the Delegacy is the want of money. In spite of the liberality of the university, and of various persons or bodies who have founded exhibitions, the funds at the disposal of delegates are inadequate. It is particularly essential that further exhibitions should be founded by the liberality of persons outside the university, which is at present hardly in a position to make any additional grant.

In conclusion, we venture to say that the work of the Non-Collegiate Delegacy in Oxford has been singularly satisfactory, and, in view of the many difficulties with which it has had to contend, wonderfully efficient. The successful development of the system in the future will be best secured by a careful consideration of the defects which are found to hinder its progress, rather than by a statement of the merits which it undoubtedly possesses. We have, therefore, felt it to be incumbent on us to call attention to those defects, believing that we can, in this way, render greater service to the cause of Secondary Education throughout the country. No one can deny that the system has done incalculable good; and from our own experience we can testify that it has helped on the lives of many persons throughout the country. It fills a gap in our educational system, and forms a bridge between the higher and Secondary Education. We believe, too, that it is capable of very wide expansion, and that the course of higher education in England will be materially benefitted by its successful development.

(Signed) R. Lamb Abbott,
Senior Tutor and Lecturer to the Non-Collegiate Delegacy.

J. Bernard Baker,
Junior Tutor and Lecturer to the Delegacy.

G. N. Richardson,
Tutor in Modern History to the Delegacy.

Note.—In reference to the recommendation par. (*a.*) p. 7, we feel strongly that the person who ought naturally to be appointed an *ex officio* member of the Delegacy is the senior tutor and lecturer.

J. B. Baker.
G. N. Richardson.

MR. OSCAR BROWNING.

College scholarships.

1. (*a.*)—I am not able to say from personal knowledge what are the effects on schools of the present application of funds, and methods of competition for college scholarships and exhibitions. I have heard it stated that a more or less organised traffic goes on between the schools and the universities, the latter trying to buy the cleverest boys they can obtain for varying sums of money, and the former confining their educational efforts to the preparation of a small number of boys whom they are prepared to sell to the highest bidder. I am not able to corroborate these accusations by any personal experience. In my own college the general feeling is that open entrance scholarships are an evil, and that if there could be a general disarmament, we should be glad to go back to a state of things in which prizes of this nature were only given after residence, except in cases of strong pecuniary need. We have also endeavoured to invest our open scholarships with a special character, so that candidates may choose to come to us rather from the general reputation of the college than from the expectation of any particular pecuniary reward.

In so far as colleges are able to do this, scholarships and exhibitions must produce a good effect upon the schools, by inducing the preparation of boys for a particular college at an early age. For instance, in my own boyhood anyone who intended to compete seriously for a scholarship at Balliol would have aimed at getting a more liberal education than his schoolfellows. If the system of examination for scholarships were made more mechanical than it is now, and if the suggestion were adopted that there should be one general examination for all scholarships, the effect upon the schools would, in my opinion, be most disastrous.

1. (*b.*)—It is certainly desirable that in awarding exhibitions, and, perhaps also foundation scholarships, account should be taken of the pecuniary needs of the candidate. This is particularly noticeable in my own college. Owing to the general idleness of Eton Oppidans, an Etonian who is desired by his parents to work and to distinguish himself is generally sent into college, although his pecuniary circumstances may not justify such a step. In due time a colleger obtains an Eton scholarship at King's. The value of this is not less than 150*l.* a year, while the value of a King's scholarship at Eton is not less than 100*l.* a year. It thus happens that the son of wealthy parents will not unfrequently have enjoyed for 10 years a scholarship varying in value from 100*l.* to 150*l.* a year, from the bounty of King Henry VI. In order to guard against this evil, our college has made it possible for holders of scholarships to resign their emoluments and become honorary scholars, and has attached conditions of pecuniary need to the newly established Eton exhibitions. We also give about half our exhibitions, both entrance and undergraduate, to candidates in need of pecuniary aid.

The question of special areas is more difficult. The close scholarship system at New College, Oxford, appears to answer well. On the other hand, the entire abolition of close Eton scholarships would in all probability be a benefit both to Eton and to King's. I have never seen the working of a system based on local preferences; but I can hardly imagine it to be advantageous. Of course a county might, with advantage, award exhibitions to be held at the university, but this is a different thing to the university offering exhibitions to be competed for by a particular county.

University examinations for secondary schools.

2.—I have had no means of judging of the effects produced by the local examinations on Secondary Education.

Of the operations of the joint board, I have seen a good deal, both as a schoolmaster and at the university, and the result appears to me, if not altogether disastrous, at least far from satisfactory. It is very desirable that there should be a leaving examination at the close of the school career, in order that the pupil and his parents may have some guarantee that he has profited, to a reasonable extent, by the education he has received, and is fit to go to higher studies, or to the occupations of life. But such an examination should be as far as possible a pass examination, and one which it should be considered a disgrace not to have passed, but not an honour to have gone through. Unfortunately, the joint board examinations have acquired an *honour* character. Schools pride themselves on having obtained a large number of certificates, and they do not hesitate to swell these numbers by sending candidates into the examination again and again, sometimes as many as four times. As success in the examination does not depend on work which cannot be examined for, such as composition and unseen translation, but to a great extent on set books, the examination is not itself of a high class, and the putting forward an examination of this lower kind, as a principal object of ambition in our great schools, tends to lower the character of scholarship, to place emulation before thought, mechanical industry before intelligent work, passive instruction by a teacher before active enterprise in self-education. I believe, therefore, that the general effect of the joint board examination during the last 20 years has been gradually to lower and degrade the standard of the higher education in our public schools. While, at the same time, it being no disgrace not to have obtained a certificate, they do not give a satisfactory test of the excellence of a school, or furnish what is specially desirable in a leaving examination. The German system seems to be much better, because (1) every pupil going to the university is expected to pass it; (2) there are no set books; (3) the examination is conducted at each school, mainly by the teachers themselves, under the direction of a central body, so that the idea of competition does not enter into it.

University extension

With regard to the university extention movement, there are others who are more qualified to express an opinion about the

part it takes in Secondary Education, but I have examined the students taught by this organisation at various times for the last 18 years, and therefore have been able to form some judgment with regard to its effects. It is impossible to deny that it has carried a great deal of useful, and a certain amount of scientific knowledge, into places which would not otherwise have been reached. It has stimulated many to love knowledge who would never have heard of it; it has formed the nucleus of local university colleges, and it has proved an excellent training ground for university teachers. At the same time, I have rarely seen in the papers I have looked over any indication of accurate and independent study such as would be found in a school or a university. The methods of the university extension movement would not, I think, by themselves be competent to give instruction in a language to those who knew nothing of it, or in mathematics, or in the more exact branches of science. I have twice given courses of extension lectures. One of these, which was designedly popular, was very largely attended, and besides paying its own expenses was able to redeem the losses caused by other courses. The second course aimed at being scientific and exact; but it failed to be popular, and at the end of the quarter my lectures were, by the wish of the class, discontinued. Those who direct the movement of university extension are undoubtedly anxious to remedy these defects, but it may be doubted whether any satisfactory means of effecting this will be discovered.

Correlation of secondary and university education.

3.—I am not in a position to pronounce an opinion upon the relation between Secondary Education and the universities, either as regards poor students, girls, or students requiring technical instruction. The only point I should desire to emphasize is that it is a misfortune that the burden of providing what is partially a university matriculation in the various examinations should be thrown upon the universities at all. In Germany there is a State examination, which is a necessary vestibule to the professions, and therefore to the degree which qualifies for these professions. While any student may enter the university and profit by the instruction given he can only take a degree if he has a leaving certificate from the schools; this certificate also is not imposed by the university for merely educational purposes but by the State. This arrangement secures to the university absolute freedom in learning and teaching, the *lehr freiheit* and *lern freiheit* of which the German universities are naturally so proud.

I do not think that the Royal Commission could do a greater service to Secondary Education than by regulating and organising the various examinations which form to-day the avenue to various professions and occupations. The careers of lawyers, chemists, architects, surveyors, accountants, and many other spheres of activity are guarded by examinations in most cases conducted by the professional bodies themselves. There is little doubt that they are generally conducted with honesty and

efficiency, but there is no appreciable public guarantee of these characteristics being preserved ; there is no unity between them, and this divergence makes it difficult, if not impossible, for schools to prepare adequately for them. The preparation, therefore, falls into the hands of crammers, whose energies are directed to the one purpose of getting the pupil through the examination by hook or by crook. All other educational objects are neglected. The low character of many of these places of so-called instruction would be apparent upon the slightest investigation. Boys are received on the "no pass no pay" system, there is no moral supervision, and the effect of three months of cram, generally spent in London, cannot but be disastrous. In Germany, where there is a much stronger inducement to pass certain examinations than in England, as every citizen may be excused two years' military service if he obtains a proper certificate, cramming is entirely unknown, and boys are prepared for their examinations exclusively in the regular schools. It is therefore to be hoped that the Commission will at least obtain full information as to these examinations, and the preparation for them, with a view to consolidating them if necessary by legislation, and giving them the character which distinguishes all German examinations, that of being conducted by the teachers themselves under the supervision of a central body.

Training of secondary teachers.

5.—The training of secondary teachers should, in my opinion, be largely in the hands of the universities. As I have been the Secretary of the Teachers' Training Syndicate since its first formation, I have had special opportunities for forming an opinion on this question. The Teachers' Training Syndicate provides (1.) lectures at Cambridge in the theory, history, and practice of teaching; (2.) an examination, which is held at different centres, on the theory, history, and practice of teaching ; (3.) it grants certificates of theoretical efficiency on the results of this examination ; (4.) it also examines either individuals or pupils of certain recognised training colleges *en masse* for certificates of practical efficiency. It has not as yet provided training in the practical work of teaching, but there is no reason why it should not do so.

There is also an institution at Cambridge for the training of elementary teachers, called the Cambridge University Day Training College. Of this I am, at present, director and principal. In this college, pupil teachers who have obtained Queen's Scholarships are enabled to prepare for a degree, and at the same time to do all the work required by the Education Department for the Government certificate, including a long time spent in school teaching. The results of this last experiment have up to the present time been eminently satisfactory. The pupils arriving at the university with little or no knowledge of Latin and Greek have passed the ordinary examinations, requiring a knowledge of these subjects, with ease, and often with credit. The larger number of them have joined colleges, and have

entered for honours examinations. Notwithstanding the disadvantage at which a pupil teacher must be compared with a public school man in passing the honours examination of the university, especially when weighted with a large amount of special work in other respects, it seems probable that more of our present candidates will obtain a second-class than a third.

The method thus applied with success to the training of elementary could easily be adapted to the training of secondary teachers. These teachers could be relieved, without loss, of a good deal of the special instruction which the pupils of the Day Training College have to receive, for instance, the necessity of learning history and geography, writing, recitation, and declamation; they might also spend fewer hours in the practising school. Thus shortened, their professional education would either be wholly or partly coincident with their academical education, or, as in the case of students preparing to take orders, it would occupy the year following the attainment of the degree. As for the inducements to undergo this training, I have no doubt that if any single headmaster declared that he would appoint no assistant who had not either obtained a certificate, or declared his willingness to obtain one within a limited period, he would have no difficulty in securing candidates for any post he might offer.

The headmasters have never said clearly whether they wish their masters to be trained, or what kind of training they desire them to undergo. The Teachers' Training Syndicate was originally established at the request of the headmasters, and the regulations were drawn up in accordance with their wishes. They have, however, made very little use of the instrument which they themselves created. The matter has been repeatedly brought before the Headmasters' Conference, and negotiations have passed between the Conference and the Syndicate, but with no definite result, although the Syndicate have shown themselves in every way desirous to meet the views of the headmasters. Some headmasters have been in favour of theoretical training only; some of practical training only; some have wished the two trainings to be concurrent; some that the theoretical should precede the practical; others that the practical should come first. The Syndicate have always held that the practical training should either be concurrent with the theoretical, or should follow it; but they do not say that they would resist a decided opinion on part of the headmasters that the practical training should come first.

At the present moment a course of training might be given in the University of Cambridge in the following way: (1.) attendance at lectures; (2.) private instruction in theory; (3.) an examination in theory; (4.) a year's practice in a school under practical instruction, with criticism lessons, and other means of education employed in training colleges; (5.) an examination after the year's training by an inspector, and the

award of a certificate of practical efficiency. As I have shown above, all this could be given concurrently with the preparation for the university degree, or it might be made partly concurrent with it, or wholly independent of it. The present certificate of the Teachers' Training Syndicate for practical efficiency could only be given after a year's training; but if it were thought that a year's training was unnecessarily long, the time and manner of the practical training could be left to the individual candidate, and he could be examined, when he believed himself to be ready, by the inspector, and his theoretical certificate could then be endorsed for practical efficiency if he satisfied the inspector. It will thus be seen that ample means exist at present at the University of Cambridge for the theoretical and practical training of secondary teachers, if there were any demand that the teachers should be so trained.

The question as to whether residential training colleges for secondary teachers should be established at the universities, or elsewhere, is one which I need not go into. If it were thought advisable to establish such colleges, they might obviously be inspected and examined, both for theory and practice, by the universities in the same manner as residential training colleges for women are now inspected and examined by the University of Cambridge.

Non-collegiate system.

6.—At Cambridge, as far as I am aware, the only effect which the non-collegiate system has had on Secondary Education has been to enable students to enter the university who could not have afforded to enter colleges. The expenses of an education at a college are decidedly larger than those of a non-collegiate student. I have known the difference estimated at 25*l.* a year. In some cases it might be more, in others less.

I think that the expenses of a non-collegiate student might be reduced below its present figure if special arrangements were made for boarding and lodging the students. At present every non-collegiate student is obliged to conform to the general university rule, compelling him to have a bed room and a sitting room. I can see no reason why a student should not occupy a single room if he so desire it, or even why two students should not live together in the same room. It is possible also that some inexpensive system of boarding might be introduced, but with regard to that I can give no precise information.

Preparation of students for public services by the universities.

7.—The universities do, to a certain extent, prepare students for public services, but their action in this respect should, I think, be very largely extended. At the last examination of the Home Civil Service, the two first successful candidates were distinguished Cambridge scholars. One of them had received no assistance from private teachers, and the other very little, if any. But what generally happens is that candidates for the Foreign Office, Diplomacy, and the Indian Civil Service regulate their university studies with very little regard to their future career, and prepare for the examination of the Civil Service

Commissioners by having recourse to Mr. Scoones and Mr. Wren, learning from them subjects which they could have acquired more thoroughly and efficiently at the university itself. The reason of this lies to some extent in the nature of the examinations. The Civil Service examinations, so far as I am acquainted with them, have two great faults; first, that they are purely mechanical—that is, they produce their results by marks alone, not going behind the marks and considering the real ability and merit of the candidate, as is done in all first-rate examinations at Cambridge and at Oxford, and secondly, that they generally allow any combination of subjects to be taken up by the candidates and do not divide the subjects into groups, only one or two of which may be chosen. Both these defects favour "cramming" rather than academical instruction. Say that a high wrangler wishes to enter for the Indian Civil Service examinations. If the subjects were divided into groups, of which the candidate was only allowed to take up two, he might choose mathematics for his first group, and adopt some other higher subject for his second group. If he goes to a "crammer" he is advised to take up a multitude of incongruous subjects, on each of which he will score something, and thereby attain the number of marks necessary to give him an appointment. Also mechanical examining favours bad teaching. All educational experience supports this view.

THE REVEREND HENRY MONTAGU BUTLER, D. D
Master of Trinity College, Cambridge.

1. (*a.*)—In estimating the full effects of college scholarships and exhibitions, it is not easy to strike the balance of good and evil. The good is very great. In most of the public schools it is felt to be an honour to win a scholarship or an exhibition at college. A tradition of effort and of victory is formed at the school, and this tends to keep up a belief in intellectual distinction as part of what the school expects from its members. It tends also to prevent other ideals, notably the athletic ideal, from becoming supreme and satisfying the ambition of the abler boys.

Further, the tradition passes on from school to college. Scholars and fellows of colleges are gratified when year after year they see fresh scholarships or fellowships won by the members of their school.

An intellectual brotherhood is thus created, from which the university, as well as the individuals, derives benefit. The government of the university is conducted by men who are, or have been, fellows. It is interesting to observe how much of this government has passed and is passing into the hands of men who have been trained not in schools which used to be

regarded as the most prominent, but in schools which are most successful in winning scholarships and exhibitions. It would be too much to expect that a stimulus so potent for good should be without its dangers. It is no doubt attended by some dangers. It may overstrain physique. It may vulgarize the intellectual ideal. It may lead masters and boys into the evils of what is called "specialisation."

The first of these dangers is, I believe, real but rare. Only a very searching investigation could reveal its true extent. The second danger almost eludes observation at the time. A master can scarcely judge, an able boy can scarcely judge himself, how far his love of knowledge and of intellectual effort is pure and disinterested, and how far made up of the desire of victory either for himself or for his school. Intellectual enthusiasm is one thing, intellectual energy is another. It would probably be untrue to say that the present system of early competition tends to foster real enthusiasm, though it certainly stimulates energy. The third danger of which I spoke, that of undue and premature specialisation, is more tangible and ponderable. So far as I can judge, in some schools boys are "told off" much too soon for the one subject in which it is hoped that they may attain distinction. The result is that not a few of those who succeed are very ill educated at the age of 18. They have read very little, and in anything like an English essay, or in answers to questions on literature, history, politics, and matters of social concern, they express themselves deplorably

This is, of course, far from being the case with all the able young men that win early honours. But it is true of a considerable proportion, and the evil is far-reaching. It tends to impoverish all intellectual life at the university, and to degrade the very conception of education. It requires anxious attention both from masters of schools and from college authorities. Masters need to remind themselves that early distinction in one subject may, even in the case of boys who are poor, be brought too nearly, and colleges in electing their scholars and exhibitioners will do well to look out for "all-round" culture and not chiefly for that one-sided ability which will shine in triposes. "Specialisation" has a meaning among mature students of a high order, but it is dangerously misused when applied to boys at school.

1. (*b.*)—In answering this question, I confine myself to "poor students" without reference to "special areas."

I have no doubt that, under our present system, much of the money expended by colleges on scholarships and exhibitions is expended unprofitably. Many of the scholars and exhibitioners would be equally benefited if the pecuniary part of their prize were either nothing or much less. At the same time I am clearly against the restriction of the right of competition to any grade of poverty. The sons of the richest should be at liberty to compete with the sons of the poorest, and to win the same degree of honour. One improvement, however, is possible and

easy. Every scholar or exhibitioner might be allowed by the statutes or regulations of his college to have all the status and advantages of the scholarship or exhibition *except the emoluments* These he might be at liberty to forego, just as the fellows of our college are at liberty, if they please, to forego the emoluments of their fellowships, and be or become supernumerary fellows.

Another improvement, much more difficult, but not, I believe impossible, would be to enact that no pecuniary emolument except of a small amount, should be granted to any scholar or exhibitioner, unless he were able to satisfy the college authorities that he needed the full amount for his university education. The first improvement implies only voluntary action, and seems free from all objection. The second implies inquiry into a man's private means, and is no doubt attended with some inconveniences, but I fully believe that it could be made to work.

The present system, wasting as it does much money that is greatly needed for really poor students, is far more open to criticism.

2. In answering this question, I limit myself to the words "joint board" and the little which I have to say is based entirely on what I observed upwards of ten years ago, when I was head master of Harrow. The introduction of the examination of public schools by a joint board representing the two universities was, in my judgment, a wise measure, chiefly perhaps as it affected the smaller and less known schools. It brought these schools into closer touch with the universities; it helped governing bodies and parents to know where good work was being done, and where there were serious obstacles or defects: and it served as a substitute for what I should regard as a less desirable expedient—inspection by a government office.

As regards the larger and better known schools, what has just been said applies in whole or in part to them also, but there is something to be said on the other side.

The case under consideration is not that of picked boys competing for a scholarship, like the Newcastle at Eton, but of a large number of boys who differ greatly in ability, but have been taught in the same books and mainly by the same masters.

In such cases the examination will, as a rule, be a better one when conducted by experienced masters who know their boys and can judge of their diligence or idleness, than when conducted by gentlemen resident at the universities, who, however distinguished as scholars, may have had no experience in teaching boys, and to whom, of course, the boys whom they examine are individually unknown.

A "joint board" examination, however ably conducted, labours under some necessary disadvantages:—

2.—(1.) It will be less well adapted to any one school than an examination planned and carried out by the masters of that school.

(2.) It will be less interesting and less subsequently useful to the boys, because they will hear much less afterwards of their

individual performances than they would hear from their own masters.

(3.) This defect will particularly be felt in the case of some important subjects like scripture and history, the examiners in which may never visit the school at all; thus the examiner will have no conversation with the head master or with the boys; and an examination always loses interest in proportion as it becomes impersonal.

(4.) Much greater difficulty will be felt in arranging the time table. This is often a serious trouble, but it need not here be explained in detail.

These disadvantages are not light ones, and should fairly be considered by those who uphold and by those who administer the "joint board" system. In my opinion, all the schools, including the largest and best known, will do wisely to adopt the system, even apart from the benefits and convenience resulting from the certificates. But I think also that there are many schools in which such examinations need not be annual. An occasional, say a triennial, examination of this kind will provide all the good that can be desired, and minimise the drawbacks.

3.—(*a.*) I understand this question something in this sense: How far does a boy at a secondary school get a training in any branch of study which is fostered at the university? And, again, how far does the university give to a boy, as a freshman and afterwards, the instruction best fitted to carry him on? I shall speak only of *classical* studies. An able boy coming to the university from the top of a well-taught public school is at once "at home." He has simply to go on with the efforts, both in mastery of authors, and in composition, with which he has been training himself during the last three years. He may find himself from the first equal, or almost equal, to any undergraduate of any year in such classical attainments as are tested by our earlier examinations. In composition, and especially in verse composition, he will sometimes lose rather than gain after he has joined the university.

He comes up in October, and in the following January he competes for the university scholarships, which are open to undergraduates of any standing; and, further, the candidates for the Chancellor's medals, who have entered the university three years and three months before, are tested by (substantially) the same examination. In this severe contest it is not a very rare occurrence to find a freshman, three months after he has entered the university, beating the best or all but the best scholars of the second, third, and fourth years.

This simple fact shows that the "correlation" between "the "present arrangements of Secondary Education" and "those of "the universities," is, in the case of picked scholars, strikingly complete. The schools have done all or more than all that can be fairly expected of them. In the case of less advanced scholars, the success of the early preparation is, of course, less

complete, but such men also probably find at college the training which is best suited for them.

3. So far I have been thinking of classical attainments as represented by the examinations for our university scholarships and our classical tripos, Part I.

It is otherwise when we come to consider the classical tripos, Part II. Part II. requires more advanced learning in one or more of five subjects, viz., literature and criticism, ancient philosophy, Greek and Roman history, archaeology, language and comparative philology.

As to these subjects, the preparation given at the secondary schools is, of course, far less adequate; it gives the linguistic foundation on which alone accurate knowledge of all these subjects can be built, but hardly any young man could step straight from school into Part II. with any hope of success. The "correlation," in this case, is probably as close as it ought to be. Except, perhaps, in ancient history, it is more than doubtful whether the schools would benefit their boys by attempting to give them at 17, 18, or 19 any considerable portion of the information which may fairly be expected from them four years afterwards.

4. In all ordinary subjects, except French and German, the teachers are university men. In classics and mathematics this will almost invariably be the case, with this difference, that the teachers in classics will generally be "Public School" men, while the teachers in mathematics will often come from smaller or less famous schools. The best known public schools do not yet, as a rule, breed their own mathematical teachers.

In natural science this peculiarity is still more conspicuous, though, doubtless, it will be less so 50 years hence.

In French and German the leading teachers at schools are still, I imagine, mostly foreigners. Whether the exceptions to this are becoming more or less I cannot judge. No doubt they are very numerous, as one result of "modern sides" and "modern departments."

5. A complete answer to this question would require entering into many details of which I have no adequate knowledge. I content myself with expressing an emphatic opinion that the teachers of secondary schools should certainly, if possible, receive special training *somewhere* before entering on their difficult duties.

The dangers of over-training are nothing compared with the dangers of no-training, and the man who would profit most by training is the man of the greatest natural aptitude.

H. MONTAGU BUTLER,
Trinity Lodge, Cambridge.

MR. J. L. STRACHAN DAVIDSON.

1. (*a. and b.*) *College Scholarships and Exhibitions.*—In view of this question I have made inquiries as to the circumstances of the open scholars and exhibitioners now in residence at this college. The result is that I find in nearly every case that the holders are in need of assistance. At the present moment I know of only one notable instance to the contrary, and in this case the holder contents himself with using the right to wear the scholar's gown, and declines to receive the emoluments to which he is entitled. In most cases the recipients could not have come to the university at all without assistance; in others they could have come only at the cost of much privation. In a few cases I received the answer that one brother might have been sent without emolument, but that it depended on the success of the first whether the parents could afford a university education for the second.

While narrowness of means appears almost universally, the social grade of the parents varies greatly. Clergymen of all denominations form the largest class. It would be tedious to enter in writing into details; but I have gone through the list with Dr. Fairbairn, who will perhaps kindly inform his colleagues on the Commission.

As the effect of open competition in its severest form is to be seen in this college, I regard these results as conclusively proving that open competition does not exclude poor men. The fact is that, given anything like equal ability, the stimulus to work is so much stronger for the poor man, that practically the well-to-do candidate will only have a chance after the poorer men have been served. I have no doubt that there are in the university men holding scholarships who could well afford to do without; but I do not believe that there are many, and I should expect to find them in colleges where the competition is less keen.

There may be parts of the country where a really clever boy has no opportunity of rising from the ranks, but this is certainly not the case in the great cities which contain such foundations as St. Paul's, King Edward's School, Birmingham, or Manchester Grammar School; nor again in any country town where there is a good grammar school. Our scholars and exhibitioners come from every district in England and Scotland, and from secondary schools of every type. It is possible that there is a real difficulty in getting from the village elementary school to the town grammar school. I cannot speak from personal experience, but I am inclined to think that if there be a gap in the upward ladder it is here. Restrictions on eligibility to college scholarships would, in my opinion, be fatal to the healthy working of the system. They would tend to make the scholars and exhibitioners a class apart, and be a bar to free social intercourse between them and the other undergraduates. As it is, they seem to assimilate very well, and this is largely owing to the honour

which attaches to their position, as having been won in an open field. The occasional possession of a scholarship by a wealthier candidate is a cheap price to pay for the raising of the status of the whole class.

The real difficulty with the poorer class of students lies not in the opportunities of rising from the ranks—when once the lad has reached the grammar school these are abundant—but in the provision of careers for them after they have passed through their university course. A man of unusual ability sometimes wins his way through the universities to a good position in the profession of law or of medicine. Some have found a career in journalism, but more commonly they look to the teaching profession. This profession is overcrowded; the good posts are very few, and require qualities which are not always found even in really able men who have risen. This applies even to the highest class of students, to the men who enter into competition for the Hertford and Ireland and other great university distinctions. Those whose talents are on a lower plane, though they may take a very respectable place in the class-lists, have not much to look forward to. The assistant masterships, except at a few great schools, are very poorly paid, and even in these, if a man has failed, or is supposed to have failed, in his first trial at managing boys or at getting on with colleagues and parents, it is very difficult to get him another post. The man with frank, genial manners and easy accommodating temper will do tolerably well; but if there is any angularity about a man, if there is anything in his bearing which causes him to be suspected of being conceited or shy or morose or awkward, then it is very difficult for him to earn his living.

If the result of the labours of the Commission is to multiply and render efficient the grammar schools throughout the country, so as to supply more posts for men of the second grade in point of ability, the problem will be to a great extent solved. I may mention that till within the last two years the difficulty of finding places for men of this class has been most keenly felt in case of the students of natural science. The recent action of the county councils, by causing a demand for persons qualified to give technical instruction, has afforded an outlet for many who would otherwise have been hanging on our hands.

I feel it my duty to draw the attention of the Commissioners more especially to this difficulty of providing careers, because it is one which comes home most forcibly to the college tutors. The schoolmasters do not feel it. The schoolmaster has the university to look forward to as the goal of his exertions with his pupils, and he then hands on the responsibility for the future career of the young man to the college tutor. Twenty scholarships in a year is a result of which the schoolmaster naturally feels proud, and he is apt to forget that for a large proportion of the 20 the scholarship may mean failure in life. On the other hand, the youth who comes in for a scholarship, and the parent who perhaps makes sacrifices to enable him to

compete, act in the hope and expectation that the career will pay; hence the bitter disappointments which are experienced.

It follows from these considerations that it is undesirable to bring poor men up to the universities unless they have given evidence of ability sufficient to enable them to make their way afterwards. Such a guarantee is, to a certain extent, supplied by maintaining the principle of perfectly open competition for scholarships. Without such a guarantee we may be doing positive mischief, by entering into a university career men whose chances in life will be thereby impaired. Local or eleemosynary endowments should not be used to enable men of second-rate or third-rate ability to struggle through the university course; but they may be made most serviceable if they are tenable along with open scholarships. A man who has no other resources cannot live in college on the emoluments of his college scholarship (which the University Commissioners have fixed at 80*l.* per annum). The poorest scholars of my college have their emoluments supplemented by school exhibitions, by the endowments of the London City Companies, and other such sources. I think that there are many cases in which the addition of 50*l.* a year from a local endowment would relieve a poor man, who has won an open college scholarship, from privation and anxiety, and so enable him to avail himself to the full, both of the educational and social opportunities (both equally important for subsequent success), which the university affords.

(6.) *Non-Collegiate System.*—What I have said in answer to question (1), as to the undesirability of bringing up to Oxford men of second-rate ability from the lower ranks, admits of a few qualifications:—

(*a.*) If such men have a vocation for the ministry, either in the Church of England or in other churches, an honourable and useful career may be found for them. In such cases a certain amount of higher education is most desirable, but first-class ability is not indispensable; moral conduct, earnestness, and unselfishness of character, and a religious habit of mind are much more important.

(*b.*) Men who have a hereditary place, which can be kept open for them in the lower branches of the law or of commerce, will be much the better for a university education, and may avail themselves of it without the danger of finding themselves stranded among the unemployed. The difficulty is, that in such cases the parent commonly believes that the son will not take heartily to his father's business unless he is caught early, and made "to begin by sweeping the shop."

For men of moderate ability belonging to both these categories the non-collegiate system has already done much, and I believe that under proper encouragement it might do much more.

For passmen, or for those who cannot expect more than a third, with the off-chance of a second-class in the honour schools, residence as non-collegiate students is probably the best course for men of narrow means.

It is to be noticed, however, that unless he have a career assured to him in one or other of the ways I have mentioned, the non-collegiate student is even worse off than the collegiate, as his tutors have at present fewer opportunities of recommending him for appointments than the college tutors possess from their influence with former members of their college. It is probably the hope of getting advancement by means of such interest which stimulates the migration of the non-collegiate students to the colleges.

(7.) *The Public Services.*—Under the reformed scheme as to the age of the candidates and the arrangement of the subjects, which has been in force during the last three years for the Civil Service of India, the universities supply an excellent training for the competition. The first places are commonly taken by university men with little or no supplementary training from the special teachers, who under other conditions had almost a monopoly of success. The superiority of university training for the Civil Service competition under the present system is likely to be still more clearly brought out in future years, since the Home Civil Service Clerkships (Class I.) will henceforth be awarded on the same examination as the Indian. The Home Clerkships have hitherto been competed for under an old and very imperfect system, under which (the freedom of choice being more restricted) a candidate had less security that his university course of reading, whatever it might have been, could be made to fit in with the requirements of the Commissioners. In practice, however, the competition for these places has recently been so keen that none but men of first-class ability have had a chance, and these were naturally to be found at the universities. The supply of these Class I. clerkships is very uncertain and intermittent, so that no young man can calculate on being able to enter for them. Competitions have, however, been held in 1893, 1894, and in January 1895, and in these years every place except one has been gained by men who have gone through the full honours course either at Oxford or Cambridge. The number of these places is so small, and the desire to obtain them so great, that the English Civil Service does not offer a practical opening for any but the very best men, such men as before the falling-off of the revenues of the colleges would have been likely to obtain prize-fellowships. With India the case is different. Here the number of places to be filled up gives a chance to any man of fair ability and industry. The difficulty is in inducing men to compete, and this difficulty is commonly greater in cases of those who have risen from lower social grades than in those who have had their training in the great boarding schools. The sons of Anglo-Indians have generally had a public

school education, and these form a large body of recruits, since their parents appreciate from experience the advantages held out by the Covenanted Civil Service. The parent of the artizan or lower middle class generally cannot bear to see the son who is the pride of his family submit to what he considers exile, and among the young men themselves there is a certain lack of enterprise and dread of an unknown climate and conditions of life which present a serious barrier. However, the opportunity is there if the men choose to take advantage of it.

I have been speaking so far of the open competition. After the men have won their places their probationary training is commonly conducted at the universities, which have provided an ample machinery for the purpose.

PROFESSOR M. FOSTER.

Correlation of secondary and university education.

3.—My experience at Cambridge has shown me that our efforts to give the students a sound scientific education, through the natural sciences tripos examination, are very largely neutralised by the students coming up to us unprepared, or very imperfectly prepared, for taking up the course of study we prescribe for them. This applies especially to the students (a large number), who take the natural sciences tripos examination in preparation for a medical degree.

The students come up to us wholly ignorant of even the rudiments of science, wholly unaccustomed to the scientific mode of thought and habit of mind. They have, nevertheless, to pass (for their medical degree) an examination in physics and chemistry at an early stage in their career. The majority of them, the men of ordinary calibre, find great difficulty in this, they get behindhand, and their whole university career is a painful struggle.

I regard our present natural science teaching as most unsatisfactory as regards students of ordinary ability; and that is due, not to lack of ability or industry on the part of the teachers, but simply to the students being unprepared on their arrival to avail themselves of what is provided for them.

It is to my mind absolutely necessary that the men who come up to us with a view of obtaining an education in natural science, especially those who propose to study for the medical profession, should be taught physics and chemistry in their schools before they come up, in such a way and to such an extent as to enable them to grasp some of the elementary ideas in these sciences, or at least to have given them some acquaintance with the more common scientific terms, and ways of scientific thinking.

I may add further, my own view, that since it is impossible to teach a boy even the rudiments of every branch of knowledge, an adequate scientific training at school can only be obtained at the expense of some other kind of knowledge.

REV. THOMAS FOWLER, D.D.

College scholarships and exhibitions.

1.—(*a.*) For some years after the statutes and ordinances of 1855 came into operation, it was commonly said that the general effect of the substitution of "open" for "close" scholarships (though it must be recollected that many of the scholarships had been open before), and of scholarships of larger for those of smaller value, was to favour the rich at the expense of the poor, as they alone could afford to give their sons the costly preliminary education which, in most cases, was essential to winning a scholarship under the system of increased and unlimited competition. And this complaint was, and even still is, largely true, but of late years the grievance has been considerably allayed by the growth and improvement of large and efficient day schools in the great centres of population, such as the various London schools, and the grammar schools at Manchester, Bradford, Bristol, Birmingham, Bedford, and elsewhere. But there can be no doubt that many of the smaller grammar schools, such as those in Lincolnshire and Devonshire, have greatly suffered by the extinction of the close scholarships, which at one time maintained a healthy competition among the principa schools of the district to which they were confined. The decadence of small grammar schools has, therefore, I think, been one result of the present scholarship system, but against this evil result it is only fair to set the impetus given to education not only in the large day schools, such as those which I have named, but in many of the more recently founded boarding schools, such as Marlborough, Clifton, Cheltenham, &c., which are mainly frequented by the sons of professional men.

An undoubted evil, not attended by any compensating benefit, which, in my opinion, has arisen from the present keen competition for college scholarships is the special course of preparation for them, often extending over a long period of years, and limiting the student to a narrow curriculum, thus frequently rendering his intellectual growth stunted and partial. A boy of tender years is trained for a school scholarship, and, no sooner has he won or lost this object of his parents' ambition, than he is run through a similar groove for a college scholarship. He has thus hardly any opportunity for independent intellectual development, and, as the college scholarships are usually confined to some special class of subjects, classics, mathematics, science, or the like, he is "specialised," as it is called, long before he leaves school, and thus cut off from some of the most useful and stimulating branches of school education. The latter system is peculiarly injurious in the case of mathematical and science scholarships, a boy often growing up, as a consequence of it, without any literary or historical interest whatever. But there are instances in which it is hardly less injurious, even in the case of classical scholars, as a boy may win a classical scholarship, even with considerable distinction, though he is entirely ignorant

of science, knows nothing of mathematics beyond the meagre minimum which is required for responsions, and is limited in his acquaintance with literature, history, and geography, to his recollections of early lessons or the scraps of information which he has recently had resort to for illustrating his essays. The suggestion may possibly be thought impracticable, but I will venture on it nevertheless, that these evils might be remedied, and the more equable intellectual development of boys promoted by encouraging, in our scholarship examinations, some competent knowledge of the other subjects taught in schools in addition to the main subject for which the scholarship is awarded. Thus, in the examination for a classical scholarship, one paper might be set in mathematics, including, say, geometry, algebra, trigonometry and geometrical conics; another, say, in the elements of mechanics and chemistry; a third in literature, history, and geography, from the modern side only, the present "general paper" being usually overweighted with questions from the classical side, which might, according to this scheme, be set exclusively on a separate paper. And, reciprocally, a similar plan might be followed in the scholarships appropriated to other subjects. Possibly the result might be that a lower standard than at present would be attained in the special subjects of each scholarship examination; but I believe that, in the long run, this defect would be far more than compensated by the wider interests and increased intellectual aptitudes of our students.

Local or poverty restrictions.

1.—(*b.*) If, with our present experience, we were still discussing, as in 1853–5, the question of abolishing local restrictions, I should certainly advocate, in the case of scholarships (no one, I presume, would now advocate it in the case of fellowships), the retention of a certain number of close foundations, providing that the areas were sufficiently extensive, and contained a sufficient number of good schools, to ensure a healthy competition. Such a retention would, I am sure, have been in the interest of poor students, of local schools, and even of the universities themselves, by providing them with a more varied field of candidates, often possessing more originality and more force of character than that from which they now draw. But, in this, as in so many other cases, when a change has once been made it is impossible to go back upon it. To some extent, I think, the same results might be approximately attained by grouping the school exhibitions to the universities now attached to particular grammar schools throughout a certain district, and throwing them open to all boys below a certain age, educated whether privately or at school, within that area. The large public schools should, of course, be excluded from competition, and, in return, they should be allowed to retain their own exhibitions for their exclusive use.

The question of a poverty restriction on the college scholarships involves many difficult issues. Poverty, as has often been

observed, is relative. How could a committee of college tutors undertake to compare the claims of a country gentleman, with diminished rental, many calls, and a large family, with those of a small tradesman, prosperous for a man of his class, but unable to find a sufficient allowance for his hopeful son to enter a college? Then, to be effective, such an examination of rival claims must be inquisitorial. And, moreover, the distinction of a scholarship as an honour and a prize (for these characters it has now assumed) would be considerably impaired by a poverty restriction, while it would hardly be equitable to exclude the sons of rich men from the position and prestige which a scholarship now confers. And yet I must confess that it does seem preposterous that the son of a well-to-do man, who with little or no difficulty could adequately support his son at the university, should be receiving a large subsidy for his education, to the exclusion of needy and almost equally competent students. To solve the difficulty, I fear I have no better suggestion to make than a compromise. Before the new statutes of 1855 had come into operation, the average value of a scholarship in Oxford was, so far as I can recollect, rather below than above 40*l.* a year. One result of the new statutes was a lively competition amongst the various colleges to obtain the best scholars, and, naturally, they soon began to outbid each other, till at one or two of the wealthier colleges the value of a scholarship actually reached 100*l.* a year. The statutes of 1882 very properly put an end to this somewhat undignified rivalry, by imposing a maximum limitation on all colleges alike. This limit was fixed at 80*l.* a year, a sum which, though not sufficient to maintain a man without any other means at the university, is largely in excess of what most of our students require, or, while they come from the same classes in society that they now do, are likely to require, in addition to the sum which their friends are quite able to allow them. Suppose the value of a scholarship could be reduced to its old limit of 40*l.*, or thereabouts, precaution being taken that the existing number of scholarships was not increased, and that the same limit was imposed on all colleges in both universities, a large sum of money would be liberated which could be applied, partly at least to the assistance of really poor students, either at their entrance to the university or subsequently, and after entrance, whether they held scholarships or not. When a student has been some little time in residence, there is not much difficulty in forming a tolerably accurate estimate of his circumstances, and the relations or friends of a candidate for a scholarship would hardly be likely, except in an extreme case, to weight his candidature with an application for additional pecuniary assistance. In offering these suggestions, I must carefully guard myself against the supposition that I think it is wise to encourage, by pecuniary inducements, men of average, or less than average abilities to come to the universities. The professions and the higher branches of business are already

overcrowded; and it is a matter of experience, that a man who has once been to an university will not stand behind a counter, become an ordinary clerk, or take to manual labour. It is really a cruelty to tempt poor men, without ability, without connexions, and without any personal recommendations, to spend three or four years at an university. The usual result is bitter disappointment, and often a blasted life. But there is little danger that colleges, especially in their present condition of suffering from a constantly diminishing revenue, are likely to spend their money on unremunerative material.

I am aware that the subject I have been discussing, and the remedies I have been suggesting, are fraught with almost insuperable difficulties, though, possibly, these difficulties are greater in theory than they would be found to be in practice. When I was myself an undergraduate, and the value of the scholarships, as I have said, did not average more than 40*l.* a year, I believe that the proportion of poor men in the university was almost as great as it is now; but somehow or other they managed to get along, many of them, I daresay, with the additional aid of small exhibitions from either their schools or colleges, which at that time were more numerous than they are now, as several of them were merged in the large scholarships which it became the fashion to create after the reforms of 1855. These latter aids would, on my proposals, be revived, only on a larger scale and in a more manageable form. Though I do not believe that the proportion of men not well-to-do has largely increased in the university, or at least in the colleges, since the Fifties, it may be true that the proportion of very poor men, that is to say, men who have hardly any private resources in addition to their endowments, has sensibly increased. These men would obviously not be wise in coming to the university, unless they were assured of a modest maintenance. But poverty so marked as this would easily admit of proof, and, if they were men of exceptional ability and attainment (and, unless they were, it would be much better that they should not come to the university at all), it would be very unlikely that, with the present rivalry amongst the colleges, there would not be some college which would lend a helping hand, out of the increased funds at its free disposal, to surmount the difficulty and throw open the gate of the academic fold. These exceptional men, at once very poor and very promising, who would necessarily be very few in number, would, I believe, fare better under the freer system which I propose than under the present rigid system by which almost the entire fund at the disposal of a college is exhausted by scholarships of a high and uniform value.

Another and perhaps, as some might think, a preferable mode of compassing the same objects would be to divide the stipend of the scholarship into two parts, of which one might invariably be given to the winner of the scholarship as a prize, while the other part should be given conditionally only, on a

declaration by the parent or guardian, countersigned by some one in a public position, that the student was unable to come up to the university without this addition to his income. The sums not thus claimed might be left freely at the disposal of the governing body for the relief of poor but meritorious students, whether scholars or not, as suggested above.

University examinations, &c. in relation to Secondary Education.

2.—I have not sufficient acquaintance either with the work of schools or with the organisation of popular lecturing to answer this question from the external point of view. Confining myself to the relation of the universities to these agencies, *i.e.*, the academical point of view, I think that the result of the Oxford and Cambridge certificate examinations has been a decided gain, and that it would be a still greater gain if the examination could take place twice in a year, or at least if there could be a bye examination, and the present responsions examination which is in many respects, very unsatisfactory) could be merged in it.

As to the local examinations and the so-called "university extension" movement (I will venture to brave unpopularity by saying that this movement is, in no real sense, an "extension" of the "university"), however excellent their results may be, they do not appear to me to be work which properly falls within the functions of an university. An university has a perfectly defined sphere, namely, the promotion of knowledge and the advancement and organisation of the higher education, and it cannot step out of this sphere without neglecting its own proper duties. In my own opinion Oxford has suffered much within the last 10 or 15 years from the undue development of these external activities. The growth of a learned class which would have done much to redeem us from a long-standing reproach has been checked, and the energies of many of our most active and promising men have been diverted from study and their proper educational work to popular and possibly more fascinating labours, but such as might be equally well, if not better, performed by many whom the republic of letters could better spare for the task. I do not deny that the work represented both by the local examinations and by the "extension lecturers" may be very useful of its kind; but I question whether it might not be equally useful and successful if administered by a Government department, the county councils, or the local colleges; while the universities, I believe, would confer far more advantages on the country than they do now, if they would confine themselves to their own functions and fulfil those functions well and thoroughly.

MR. H. T. GERRANS.

College scholarships and exhibitions.

1.—(*a.*) In considering the effects on schools of the present application of funds and methods of competition, it is necessary to make a sharp distinction between the larger public schools,

from which several boys enter for scholarships every year, and those schools, whether proprietary or endowed, which do not furnish more than one candidate per annum, and occasionally fail to send up any.

The major part of the funds available for scholarships and exhibitions is offered for classics, and the number of candidates in this subject may be estimated at more than two hundred annually. It is apparent that boys who desire such a scholarship or exhibition must begin to specialise early. In the public schools there is ample provision of classical instruction of a high standard during several years, and the arrangement approved by the university, by which boys may obtain at an early age exemption from responsions (the only examination for the B.A. degree in which mathematics is an obligatory subject), enables them to benefit by their classical training without distraction. In the other schools mentioned it is difficult, in many cases impossible, to provide good classical teaching for so many years of a boy's career. The headmaster is usually a good classic, and capable of imparting a thorough knowledge of the subject, but the governing body of the school have not the funds to secure first-rate men for assistant-masters. In practice this frequently results in a limitation of the choice of a headmaster to one who has made a special study of classics. Such a man has often had but little experience of other portions of a school curriculum, and is occasionally unfit to judge whether any changes are necessary in order to secure adequate provision of instruction in non-classical subjects. He trains boys for classical scholarships, and from the ranks of classical scholars most headmasters are drawn. Thus the circle is complete.

The effects of the present application of scholarship funds are most apparent in the smaller endowed schools.

The cost of maintaining efficient teaching of natural science in schools, and the fact that a comparatively small proportion of scholarships are awarded for branches of that subject have retarded progress in this department in the smaller endowed schools.

In the settlement of the school curriculum too much regard is frequently paid to the needs of the boy who may wish to compete for a scholarship, and too little attention is devoted to the determination of the best education for the rest of the pupils.

The present method of awarding scholarships on the results of an examination held eight or even ten months before the scholar comes into residence has certain advantages, as well as disadvantages:—

(α.) Advantages:—A boy knows in good time whether he is likely to be a successful competitor, or ought to select some other career;

(β.) Disadvantages:—Idleness is encouraged during the rest of his school year, especially if his school is a small

one, as his comrades may seem to require more attention than one whose future is secure.

If the disadvantages are thought to outweigh the advantages, it should be noted that the smaller schools are impotent to secure a remedy, while the heads of public schools who have the power do not exert it.

Further the Statutes of Oxford colleges might be amended with advantage so as to enable the authorities to raise the value of scholarships in the case of industrious and capable men. Most colleges have no power to augment the stipends of deserving poor students, while it has proved difficult to secure adequate punishment for the idle, the penalty contemplated by the Statutes being so severe as to be practically inoperative.

1.—(*b.*) *Poor Students.*—It is difficult for colleges to investigate evidence of poverty. It seems better that local authorities, as knowing the circumstances of each case, should award bursaries tenable at the university, and that colleges should add the distinction "scholar" or "exhibitioner"' as the case may be, after due examination.

Special Areas.—It is most undesirable that scholarships should be awarded by a college on an examination of candidates, who are eligible by means of their place of birth or residence, or are nominated by a special school or group of schools. The best boys are sent in for open scholarships, and the weaklings are entered for the close competition. This depresses the standard, and frequently leads to friction between the nominating and awarding bodies. The term "scholar" has a fairly understood meaning, and it is undesirable to permit nominators outside the awarding body to decide whether a candidate deserves the rank and title of scholar.

University examining agencies.

2.—I consider that the working of the agencies referred to has been beneficial, and I hear with regret that the governing bodies of some endowed schools are permitted to appoint persons instead of one of these or similar organisations to conduct the examination of the school. Such an organisation is likely to be impartial, elastic, and ready to guide enterprising schools as well as to compel improvement in those which are less efficient. As new needs have arisen, these boards have endeavoured to face the problems, and to obtain a solution.

Correlation of university and secondary education.

3.—The universities are in close touch with first-grade schools, influence them, and are influenced by them. Second-grade schools, from which boys occasionally proceed to the universities, are affected by the curriculum of the latter; but the majority of such schools are brought into contact with the universities only through the Local Examination Boards. The beneficial results of this contact have been specially marked since principals have formed the habit of sending in for the university examinations whole classes, and not merely selected candidates.

The universities stand in no relation to third-grade schools except through the local examinations.

The admission of women students to the lecture room and the examination hall at the university has modified profoundly some of the leading girls' schools, many of which prepare pupils to continue their studies at Oxford or Cambridge.

There is reason to fear that technological instruction and scientific teaching may become separated. At present, technological institutes appear to stand out of all relation to the universities. It is important that the latter should not cease to perform their proper function, viz., to provide a thorough scientific education for those who are likely to be called upon to teach technical subjects; and it is equally necessary that technical schools should aim at educating, as well as training. More frequent consultation between the teaching authorities at the universities and those at the various technical schools would be beneficial to both, and to scientific education generally.

Provision of secondary teachers by universities.

4.—Teachers of first grade schools are mostly university men. In endowed second grade schools the principal is generally a graduate, and in most cases he has under him one or two who are also graduates, but the whole staff seldom consists of university men exclusively. In private second grade schools there is every variety of qualification; a large number of university men are engaged in schools of this type, but it is almost certain that the majority have never been to a university.

Training of teachers.

5.—The universities ought to provide instruction in method preferably (but not exclusively) as a post-graduate study, and it is desirable that the universities should be entrusted with the duty of examining secondary teachers before admission to the register.

Non-collegiate system.

6.—I consider that the non-collegiate system has conferred a great benefit on Secondary Education by diminishing the cost of living, and so enabling a class of poorer men to enter the university. I have had among my pupils non-collegiate students whose early training was too inadequate for them to obtain a scholarship at a college, but who thoroughly deserved the opportunity afforded them of pursuing their studies. The expense of life in college would have been prohibitive: under the non-collegiate system such men receive the best instruction at a very low fee, and, by their industry, show their appreciation of the benefits thus conferred upon them.

The useful influence of the system would be greatly increased (1) if the authorities had at their disposal additional funds for the assistance of able, poor students; (2) if there were less inclination on the part of the students to migrate to a college before graduating.

I do not doubt that adequate provision of scholarships and exhibitions would raise the non-collegiate body in general estimation, and would diminish the tendency to migration.

REV. T. H GROSE.

College scholarships and exhibitions.

1. (A.). It is obvious that the prospect of competing at the universities for scholarships and exhibitions is a strong stimulus to the work of a Sixth Form. I would further suggest that the character of these examinations frequently widens the interests of the Form, and introduces a more general culture.

This point I can illustrate by a fact which came under my notice at a public school some years ago. It was found that in the examinations at Oxford great weight was attached to an English essay and to questions in a "general paper," which included history, literature, &c. In consequence, a master took the Form once a week to train boys in "general subjects." Those who were going to Oxford attended diligently; the others went to sleep.

(B.).—A restriction to an area may be very advantageous. We have in this college a foundation confined to leading schools in three adjacent counties. Every year candidates from these schools are pitted against one another. The successful candidates meet afterwards at the college as undergraduates, and the names of their schools appear after their names in the calendar. Dr. Fitch has called attention to the admirable results produced by this public competition. I may add that a limited competition of this kind tends also to stimulate those boys in a Sixth Form who are not quite at the head, and not quite good enough to succeed in competitions for scholarships which are entirely open; and this effect very directly raises the character of the work throughout the Form.

As to poor students:—Most of our scholars and exhibitioners are poor men, and I much regret that the late Commission cut down the emolument from 90*l.* to 80*l.* It would be well if there were funds attached to schools or districts, appropriated to the assistance of poor students from the school or districts, who have proved their merit by winning scholarships or exhibitions, and who require further assistance. The circumstances of a poor man are better judged in his own neighbourhood; and help of this kind is, perhaps, rather a local duty.

The only class of poor students who are not up to this level, and who might, nevertheless, be helped to come to a university, are, perhaps, national schoolmasters.

On questions 2–6 I have no observations to offer.

Preparation of students for public services by the universities.

7.—I am sorry to find that, so far as my own experience goes, the India Civil Service is not now sufficiently attractive to draw the best men. And I much regret that the Home Civil Service by announcing and then withdrawing clerkships has inflicted considerable injury and pecuniary loss on intending candidates. There is, I think, no doubt that the honour schools of the universities are the best training for such candidates; and it is a pity that the Home Civil Service examinations are not so

devised as to give as good a chance to those Oxford men who have taken Literæ Humaniores as to those who have read modern history. For this reason the Home Civil Service will not draw the best men.

MISS M. E. HARGOOD.

Analysis of Attendance of Teachers and Persons of School-Age at University Extension Lectures.

Statistics as to university extension work.

The information on which the following statistics are based was obtained from nine of the ten centres of university extension teaching comprised in the Eastern Counties Association.

1. *Teachers and Pupil Teachers in Elementary and Higher Grade Schools.*

*Norwich.

Average attendance per course taken over five courses since October 1893 - - -	37·4
Average number examined per course - -	11·
„ „ failed - - -	·2
„ „ obtained distinction - -	3·2

*Colchester.

Average attendance for course in Lent term 1894 - - - - -	36
Average number doing weekly papers - -	6
„ entered for examination - -	5
„ passed - - - -	4

Cambridge.

Average attendance per course taken over three courses since October 1893 - - -	24

Ipswich.

Attendance of teachers (elementary and higher grade) - - - - -	15

No pupil teachers.

2. *Boys and Girls from Higher Grade Schools.*

Attend in small numbers in four centres.

In Cambridge six attended a course of lectures on botany in the Michaelmas term, 1893; three took the examination at the end and passed.

No further statistics are forthcoming on this head.

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* In these towns free tickets were issued to elder pupil-teachers by provision of the technical committee.

3. *Boys and Girls from Private Schools.*

These attend in eight centres.

*In Cambridge the average attendance is about -	6
In King's Lynn - - - -	10

Norwich.

Average attendance per course taken over five courses since October 1893 - - -	9·4
Average number examined - -	2·4
„ „ passed - - -	1·8
„ „ gained distinction - -	·6

Colchester.

Average attendance per course taken over six courses since October 1893 - - -	7·0
Average number examined - -	3·0
„ „ passed - - -	2·5
„ „ failed - - -	·5

Bishop Stortford.

During the last course of university extension lectures, half the audience consisted of pupils *and* teachers from private and grammar schools.

Sudbury.

More than one-fifth of the audience consisted of pupils from private schools.

4. *Boys from Grammar Schools. Girls from High Schools.*

Returns under this heading have been received from two centres only.

1. King's Lynn.

The numbers are not given. It is stated that probably all the elder girls would attend in the Michaelmas term, but that they are prevented from doing so by their preparation for the Cambridge local examinations.

2. Bishop Stortford.

5. *Young People whose Education is being carried on at home.*

These appear to form a small portion of the audience in six centres, but very few statistics are forthcoming.

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* The small number attending at Cambridge is accounted for by the fact that the lectures there were given exclusively in the evenings during the period considered.

Norwich.

Average attendance at each course taken over five courses	8·0
Average number examined	3·4
„ „ passed	2·4
„ „ gained distinction	·8

Colchester.

Average attendance at each course taken over six courses	2·3
Average number passed	1·0

MR. F. HAVERFIELD, M.A.

College scholarships and exhibitions.

I. (*a.*) *Effect on Schools of present application of Funds and methods of Competition.*—At present I think the university is more influenced by the school system in these points than the reverse; this is my impression after having spent several years as a schoolmaster, and several as a college tutor. But in three points (one good (*a.*), and two bad (*b.* and *c.*)), the university funds and methods of competition do affect schools strongly:—

(*a.*) The introduction of scholarships open to free competition has done untold good in stimulating the work of the higher (and indirectly of the lower) forms in schools which send boys to the universities.

(*b.*) The introduction of scholarships in modern history, science, &c. has done harm, as follows:—Schoolmasters have found these subjects attainable by dull boys, while, owing to the conditions of competition in history and the fact that advanced science must (economically) lie outside the average school curriculum, the competitors are fewer than in "classics" or mathematics; hence they specialise dull boys in these subjects from an early age, to win them scholarships. Neither liberal culture nor technical training profit—nor does the man find himself able to earn a good living at the end of it. [Probably this could be remedied by widening the examinations. A classical examination now includes English composition and literature, and history, &c.—often equally important with the Latin and Greek—if science examinations were similarly widened, their narrowing influence would be altered or removed. In modern history something has been done in this direction.]

(*c.*) The reputation of a university, the endowments, and the existence in many cases of local exhibitions to the universities (*see* I. (*b.*)) entice masters of small grammar

schools into training boys for the universities, rather to the loss of the majority of pupils who will go into business early. (A well-known case, *Schools Inquiry Commission*, i., p. 156.) But as to this evil, it should be noted (A.) that it is really the result of ambition, and reappears *mutatis mutandis* anywhere else. Thus, schools where the curriculum suits the Oxford or Cambridge locals will often strive to enter for the joint board certificates, which represent something thought to be "higher." And (B.) the evil does provide a way, though an uncertain one, for able poor boys to be picked out and given a chance.

I. (*b.*)—*Restrictions on eligibility in interest of poor students'* so-called poverty clause, are in my experience, *bad*. Candidates elected under such clauses are almost always inferior in ability to those who win open scholarships, other conditions being equal. Exceptions to this state of things are almost wholly due to difference of conditions; thus "poverty" exhibitions with no limit of age will often attract good men who are older than the average undergraduate (25 or 30 against 20); I had lately a pupil who held such an exhibition, and stepped straight from his Oxford undergraduateship into a professorship at another university. Apart from such men who are and ought to be a minority, the winners of exhibitions, with poverty clauses are almost all, in my experience, inferior men. [I think poor students could be better provided for by special funds in augmentation of open endowments; this plan, tried in one or two Oxford colleges, works well in my experience.]

1. (*b.*) *Restrictions in interest of special areas.*—Endowments offered for competition under "local clauses" one of two sorts: (1) a college offers them to candidates from special schools or areas, or (2) special schools or districts possess endowments or funds somehow available to help University students. (Usually, but *not* always, the "local" clause is accompanied by a "poverty" clause.) My experience at school and at Oxford has been that "local" endowments are almost always gained by inferior men. Where it is not so, it is usually because the statutes of the endowment permit or direct the electors to refuse candidates unless they come near the usual open standard (this is the case with some endowments of No. 1): in other words, those elected would succeed anyhow and the "local" clause has no real effect. Local clauses are open further to the objection that populations shift and change: a redistribution bill would be needed every 15 to 20 years, and it is morally certain that local interests would block any redistribution of money. In 50 years we should be worse off than we were before the Charity Commission began.

For obvious reasons I omit definite examples, though I know many. I may quote one: a pupil of my own, who was one of the dullest boys I have met (dull in linguistic and in technical matters) gained by examination under a "local" clause an

exhibition of 100*l.* a year for five years to take him to the university. In general, I believe that local and poverty restrictions alike end in educating those least worthy of education. It is possible (some here hold the view) that our open endowments are too large, and entice men to Oxford who would be better in trade. I do not agree with this view, but, if it be true, the argument against restrictions becomes much stronger.

Provision of secondary teachers by universities.

IV.—Schoolmasters are tending more and more to insist on a *university degree*. The schools which take boys wishful to come to a university are almost wholly officered by graduates: the preparatory schools corresponding to them are nearly as strict in this requirement. Among other secondary schools non-graduate masters are commoner, but they seem to be a decaying race. Their salaries are far lower than those of graduates, and their occurrence in a school is often significant. There is a tendency to prefer graduates even for the "off-subjects" like music: this, I think, shows that the increase of graduate masters is due to increased capabilities among graduates rather than to any fashionableness of a degree.

I believe there is a similar tendency to demand the equivalent of graduates for posts in women's education and girls' schools.

Training of teachers.

V. *Training of Teachers in the University.*—The ordinary university course, of itself, does a great deal towards training a teacher. (1.) He gets an intellectual training of some sort, which can be gauged by his examination performances; (2.) he learns a good deal about management—and in this respect, he prepares almost directly for work in a public school where much more is needed than simple lecturing power. This (it is a good deal) might well be supplemented by college or university lectures on school work and management, on educational history, etc., and especially on methods of teaching various subjects, with some voluntary examination at the end. The object seems to me to *get the future teacher thinking* about teaching; then, being (on the whole) an educated and capable man, he will probably be able to take his own line. Two things must be left out: (*a*) practical training, for which there is really no room, so far as I can judge, in Oxford, and (*b*) lengthy courses: anything which takes up much time will be eluded or contested [it should be added that lengthy courses are not necessary for the majority of our present students; two-thirds of what is written in the ordinary treatise on teaching is already a matter of common knowledge to a man who has been through a public school and the university]. I would open these lectures and examinations also to intending teachers who had not entered the university: as I have said (Q. IV.), these would not be very numerous under our existing circumstances.

University examining agencies.

II.—I have personal knowledge only of the *Joint Board*. The examinations of this board have raised the level of work in many schools, and provided a fairly efficient inspection of schools which

send boys to the universities. They do not, of course, touch the lower secondary schools to any real extent; there, *I suppose*, the locals, &c. come in. In general my experience is that these examinations are good, when not universal. When they become large, three dangers arise: (1) the size makes effective control of detail, supply of efficient men, &c., hard (the usual set-off against cheapness; (2) all large examinations tend to equalize unequal subject—this I hold to be the most serious point in the charge that "the examination drags the school after it"; (*c*) the examination becomes bureaucratic and inelastic, with a tendency to interfere with teachers' methods rather than test results.

III. *Correlation between Secondary Education and Universities.*—(*a*) Generally. I am not sure what is wanted in answer to this. Beyond doubt the schools which do send boys to the universities are satisfactorily correlated to the universities. The subjects taught are the same, and the pupil goes on where he left off. Any further statement might explain my prejudices or wishes but not the facts. (*b*) Poor students. Apart from open or restricted endowments, poor students at Oxford can either be non-collegiate (Q. VI.), or use facilities provided by colleges—varying in various colleges; *e.g.*, in one college a man can get his bedroom and sitting-room for 6*l.*—9*l.* a year, with private reductions of fees, &c. But I do not want to see the poor student, merely *as poor*, brought to the universities. I have known cases enough where private benevolence or the accident of a restricted exhibition have brought up to Oxford men who were not really capable of profiting by the education, and who, at the end, were not in a good way to start life; such men would have done well with a technical or agricultural training. I think it cruel to attract poor men unless they have the brains to win a living after they have taken their degrees. It is quite *arguable* that we do too much for the poor student—at least as a paradox.

Of *Girls'* and *Technological instruction* I know little.

Non-collegiate system.

VI. *Non-collegiate.*—The institution of non-collegiate students seems to have done little to attract poor students. There has been no rapid increase of numbers, and the body of unattached includes, I believe, a very large proportion of "passmen" (*i.e.*, the less clever men). The reduction of college expenses, the attractions and advantages (social and intellectual), of college life, and the difficulty of living with real cheapness except in the out-of-the-way suburbs of Oxford make against the unattached. I do not see that this state of things is likely to alter. Nor would it be good if the university were divided into unattached poor and collegiate rich. I should prefer to see the colleges (as some at Cambridge) become less rigid in their requirements of residence in the college walls in special cases; this, I think, would meet the needs.

VII. I believe the influence to have been *good*, but I do not quite know what further answer I should give.

PROFESSOR HOLLAND.

1. (*a.*)—I am disposed to think that the funds are well applied, but should prefer to see the maximum age for scholarships fixed at 18 instead of 19, so that an earlier entrance might be made upon practical life. College scholarships.

(*b.*)—I am strongly of opinion that there should be no restrictions on the ground of poverty. Something like a ladder of scholarships should lead from primary schools, through secondary, to the university for able lads, but nothing is gained for society by subsidizing students not marked by special ability. I should not interfere further with the quasi-proprietary right of certain districts to scholarships in certain colleges. I should be sorry to break, *i.e.*, the secular continuity of the inflow into New College of students from Winchester, nor would I deprive Wales, so secluded as it is in several respects from the national life, of the inducements offered to her sons, through the Jesus College scholarships, to spend some years in Oxford.

2.—The local examinations appear to do a useful work, both by setting a standard of, at any rate second class, attainment for the schools of the country, and by relieving the university course of many students, of responsions, or some similar examination. I have no reason to suppose that extension delegacies are of any service to Secondary Education (so far as it is carried on through schools). University examining agencies.

MR. T. F. C. HUDDLESTON.

1. (*b.*) *College Scholarships and Exhibitions.*—With respect to "poor students," I am of opinion that in awarding college scholarships and exhibitions regard should always be had to the pecuniary means of the candidates. It often happens that these emoluments are granted to the sons of parents perfectly able to defray the necessary cost of an university education. These have in the first instance sent their sons to preparatory schools, where the fees for boys of from 9 to 14 years of age range from 120*l.* to 150*l.* a year, and where boys are specially trained for scholarships at public schools. I have myself examined several times at Eton, and it is rarely the case when a boy obtains a scholarship who has not come from one of these expensive establishments. Similarly, in competing for college scholarships and exhibitions, not only has the son of well-to-do parents the advantage of first-class school training, in part purchased for him, but he can command, if thought expedient, special private tuition in view of the college examination. Proceeding to the university these well-to-do scholars and exhibitioners are able to push up the standard of living and make it more difficult for poorer students to live economically.

As a remedy for this, I would submit (*a.*) that honorary scholarships and exhibitions should be created, conferring rooms in college, but no pecuniary emoluments, and (*b.*) that a declaration should be required from the parent that his son cannot enter a college unless he obtains pecuniary assistance.

Non-collegiate system.

6.—The non-collegiate system was introduced some 25 years ago, and since this time two public and one private hostels have been established in Cambridge. Several colleges have also reduced their charges to students, and generally a more economical standard of living seems to have been adopted by undergraduates. The expenses of a college course have also been reduced in many cases by the practice of undergraduates entering as non-collegiate students and migrating after their first year and later to a college. Thus the almost necessary expenditure of an ordinary student, living economically in college rooms, which I estimate at 120*l.* a year (exclusive of private tuition, clothes, travelling expenses, &c.), can be reduced to about 78*l.* a year as a non-collegiate student. In many cases the latter estimate has not been found necessary, and about 55*l.* a year has been proved to be a minimum. I cannot doubt, therefore, that the introduction of the non-collegiate system has directly and indirectly enabled many students, after leaving school, to enter the university, and it is reasonable to suppose that in course of time the system will be still further extended, when it has become more widely known how great has been the development of university education in harmony with the practical claims of the community, and that such education may be obtained without expenses which previously excluded so many.

MR. HENRY JACKSON, LITT.D.

College scholarships and exhibitions.

College scholarships and exhibitions are awarded, partly (1) to undergraduates, partly (2) to schoolboys who have not yet begun residence at the university.

(1.) Those scholarships which are awarded to undergraduates have excellent effects within the college: in particular (*a*) they bring together and distinguish the best of the reading men; (*b*) they encourage steady and methodical work; (*c*) they afford important assistance to able men who are in want of pecuniary help. But I do not perceive that they exercise any direct influence upon Secondary Education.

(2.) Those which are awarded to schoolboys have a direct, extensive, and (in my opinion) mischievous influence upon schools. These considerable rewards, which the colleges distribute in the hope of securing promising material, appeal to the ambition and the interests both of the parent and of the school-

master; and in consequence boy, parent, and schoolmaster agree in proposing to themselves, as the end to be sought, not solid proficiency, but juvenile success. Accordingly, the clever boy is allowed and encouraged, from an early age, to specialize in his strongest subject and to neglect others, while the less clever, who continues to pursue the routine work of the form, suffers grievously by the withdrawal from it of his abler contemporaries.

I think, then, that "open" scholarships, that is to say, scholarships offered to *schoolboys* without restrictions, have done and are doing serious harm to the schools, and I would gladly join (as I have done in the past) in a movement for their abolition. I may add that I have seldom, if ever, heard anyone here justify their retention except on the ground that, so long as there are open scholarships at Oxford, open scholarships must be retained at Cambridge, if Cambridge is not to see all the more promising students go elsewhere. An important letter published by Mr. Hemming not long ago seems to show that this was the view taken by the Cambridge University Commissioners of 1887.

But whilst I would abolish unrestricted competitions for "open" scholarships, I would retain (or establish), in the interest of poor students who cannot matriculate without the assurance of pecuniary help, *restricted* competitions for exhibitions. That is to say, I would offer exhibitions to students who have not yet begun residence, on condition—

(*a*) That the candidate signs a simple declaration that he needs pecuniary aid to enable him to pursue his studies at the university,

(*b*) That the college does not publish any list of the successful candidates.

These conditions would, I think, suffice to destroy the unhealthy interest which schoolmasters and the public at present take in these distributions of prizes, and would not be in any way onerous to those students who need the assurance of pecuniary help from the very beginning of residence.

Thus far I have been speaking of "open" scholarships. I may now perhaps add a few words about scholarships awarded to *undergraduates*.

In the first place, I think that it should be possible for a scholar who is rich to put himself upon a supernumeray list, and surrender the emoluments of his scholarship without sacrificing the position and the title. I believe that some colleges have already a statute to this effect; I think that it should be introduced in all cases.

Secondly, I think that there should be some limitation to the amount which may be received by the holder of a plurality of

scholarships. It is conceivable that the following money prizes should be won and held by a member of this college:—

	£	£
Scholarship from school, say	4 × 50	=200
College scholarship	½ × 80 3½ × 100 2½ × 80	590
Bell scholarship	4 × 50	=200
Porson scholarship	2 × 80	=160
Craven scholarship	7 × 80	=560
Whewell scholarship	4 × 100	=400
		£2,110

Of this sum of 2,110*l.* the scholar might receive upwards of 1,000*l.* during his undergraduateship.

That the amount thus accumulated is too great is obvious. It is unseemly that the scholar should not only have a free education, but also save upon it; whilst if he spends his whole income, the example thus set by a prominent reading man is injurious to undergraduate society as a whole.

I think then, that, however many scholarships the undergraduate may win, there should be a limit to the whole sum which normally he may receive from them—say 100*l.*; but that this limit should be capable of relaxation, to the extent of (say) another 100*l.*, in particular cases, in consideration of the pecuniary needs of the scholar. I must, however, admit that there would be difficulties of detail in carrying out this scheme.

I am not sure that more might not be done than is done at present to enable poor students who are *not* likely to win the great prizes to receive the benefits of a university education.

Examinations of joint board.

2. During the last 12 years I have taken part in the awarding of the certificates given by the joint board. I think that the appointment of subjects for examination has had an advantageous influence upon schemes of study and time tables, and that the prospect of a common examination has usefully stimulated the efforts, both of teachers and of learners, in each particular school. The work done is now much more accurate and business-like than it was 12 years ago.

REV. W. W. JACKSON, D.D.

Exeter College, Oxford,

SIR, June 1894.

IN reply to your circular letter of May 2nd, 1894, on behalf of the Royal Commissioners on Secondary Education, I beg to submit an expression of opinion on some of the queries

contained in it. The questions which I have endeavoured to answer are these:—1. (*a*) and (*b*), 3. (*a*) and (*b*) (1) omitting (2) and (3), 5, and 6.

I have had some special experience of the non-collegiate system, as I was censor of non-collegiate students for four years 1883–1887, and have been since that time a member of the delegacy which superintendents them. The question on the non-collegiate system has been answered by me in connexion with question 3. Question 1, so far as it refers to poor students, is connected with question 3, but raises other points of importance, and has been answered separately. My reply, therefore, falls under three heads, viz.—I., Question 1 (*a*) and (*b*); II., question 3 (*a*) and (*b*) (1), and question 6; III., question 5.

College scholarships and exhibitions.

I.—At the present time most of the scholarships in the university are open to candidates under 19 years of age, without any restriction as to place of birth or need of assistance. A large number, but not all, of the exhibitions in colleges are confined to candidates who require help at the university; and there are some scholarships and many exhibitions with local restrictions. The great majority of scholarships both open and close, and of exhibitions at Oxford, perhaps as many as three-fourths or four-fifths of the whole number, are given for proficiency in classics.

The present state of things has arisen out of the action taken by the University Commission of 1854. We have, therefore, an experience of 40 years to guide us in estimating the wisdom of the course then adopted.

There is no doubt that the secondary schools, as well as the older universities, have been greatly benfited by the removal of restrictions on scholarships and exhibitions. The Commissioners of 1854 rightly remarked that "what the State and the Church "require is not poor men, but good and able men, whether poor "or rich." They also expressed a hope that, if a large number of open endowments were established, very few poor men of merit would be kept back by poverty from obtaining an academical education. This hope has been to a great extent fulfilled, if we restrict the term merit to proficiency in classics and mathematics. Any young man of ability and industry who has been well trained in these branches of knowledge can make sure of obtaining a scholarship or exhibition. So great is the multitude of endowments of this kind that the colleges reward not only the best candidates, but also the second best. It would not be desirable in the interests of education that colleges should elect to scholarships any candidates who are less well trained than some of those who now succeed in these competitions.

The liberation of university endowments has done much to improve education in secondary schools not only by applying a stimulus to those already existing, but by helping forward a

large humber of schools which have been started since 1854. The increase in the supply of well trained candidates from the smaller foundation schools has been plainly marked; and many new schools have grown up in the last 40 years and taken their places among the great public schools which would have had no prizes to set before their boys as the goal of school-life if local restrictions had not been removed.

The principle of competition has been recognised at the schools no less than at the universities: all restrictions have been removed from the entrance scholarship on the old foundations, and most scholarships which have been established at the new schools are similarly free. During the past few years the preparatory schools have also increased in number, and have been much improved through the adoption of the present system. These schools devote much of their energies to training boys for entrance scholarships at the public schools. At many of them scholarships are given to attract clever children who may be successfully prepared for future competitions. The incentives which are given by competition are felt in all those sections of society from which boys are sent to the universities, richer and poorer alike. If these incentives were withdrawn from the richer classes, it is probable that they would send fewer of their clever boys to the universities than at present.

When the deficiencies of the present system are under discussion it is well to recall its beneficial effects. But some evils have no doubt arisen from the working of the existing arrangements. There are three points on which I should wish to say a word or two: the effect produced on school education by giving an undue prominence to scholarship competitions, the waste of educational endowments on persons who can obtain the best education without them, and the disproportionate share of endowments at present bestowed on particular branches of study.

Undue prominence of competition for scholarships.

(*a.*) Much has been said in the last few years in disparagement of examinations, into which I do not wish to enter here. In any case examinations are indispensable, both for testing the work of a school and for awarding educational endowments to boys entering the universities. But the competition for endowments from the time when boys enter a preparatory school, or even earlier, certainly produces a disastrous effect on some minds. It prevents them throughout their lives from feeling the independent attraction of any branch of knowledge or study, and it often narrows their views of life. There are many boys whose whole energies, from a very early period in life, are turned to the pursuit of endowments, and at the end of their university career they have no desire except to go on in the same groove. As these endowments in Oxford are chiefly bestowed for proficiency in classics, a large number of men drift into the calling of teacher, not because they are specially qualified for it, but because their aims in life have been

contracted. This evil should not be exaggerated, but it certainly exists. The competition for endowments, moreover, seems to depress the ordinary school examinations. In schools the contrast between the boys who have this competition in view and those who have not is strongly marked. Soon after taking my degree I spent three years at a school as assistant master, and had some experience of the conditions of school life. It seemed to me that the younger boys, whatever their future prospects might be, worked fairly well until they reached a certain height in the school. At this level there was a growing number of boys who were not amenable to any other motive than the fear of superannuation. The rule of superannuation, even where it is properly enforced, is not sufficient to ensure industry. Many boys, whether they escape the application of this rule or no, form habits of confirmed idleness before they leave school. The boys who work to the end of their career almost always work with a scholarship competition in view. It is desirable to find some means of bringing pressure to bear on the schoolboy of average, or less than average capacity, who is not fit to take part in the competition for endowments. Many boys leave school after learning Latin and Greek for eight, nine, or ten years without reaching the standard of classical attainment required in responsions. The present system of composition is not immediately responsible for this state of things, but it has gained an ascendancy which throws other motives for exertion into the shade. Any change which gave greater importance to the regular school curriculum and examinations would help to remedy this evil. But those who have had longer and more recent experience of school work than myself will be better qualified to make suggestions on this point.

Waste of endowments on those not in need of them.

(*b.*) With regard to the waste of endowments on boys whose parents would be able to give them the best education without such aid, I shall try, in answering question 3, to show that at Oxford a large proportion of the scholarships is won by persons who could not come to the university without such help. From such observations as I have been able to make I am inclined to think that many more boys who do not need assistance win entrance scholarships at some of the great schools than at the universities. Only boys who have received a special training, which is rarely to be had without considerable outlay, can succeed in these competitions: and at the age when school scholarships are won, the sons of well-to-do parents are more easily induced to work than afterwards. Some limitation of endowments to boys who need assistance in their education seems to me even more necessary at schools than at the universities. But there would, I think, be a large body of opinion, both at Oxford and at Cambridge, favourable to such limitation on college scholarships. The competition among colleges for clever boys has led to the foundation of a number of scholarships and exhibitions which is disproportionate to the

resources of many of the colleges in the present depressed condition of landed property. They would be glad to apply to other academical purposes, especially to the encouragement of mature study, any saving that could be effected by reducing the value of entrance scholarships, even if this saving were not very considerable. Some restriction on endowments in the interests of poor students would also, I think, be generally acceptable as a matter of principle. It is true that it is far more important in the public interest to develop ability than to endow poverty. But the average value of the scholarships is now higher than was contemplated in the report of the Commission of 1854. Most open scholarships at Oxford are of the value of 80*l.* a year. I do not, however, think that it would be desirable either to limit college scholarships to persons in need of assistance at the university, or to deprive them of all pecuniary value. Scholarships should be open to all comers as before. But I would suggest that the regular payment of a scholar should not be more than 30*l.* a year, and that colleges should obtain power to augment the scholarship to 80*l.*, irrespective of any allowance for tuition or rooms, if the holder were in need. Need of assistance should be interpreted liberally, and there should be a common agreement as to the meaning attached to this term. A professional man with a large family and no private means is poor even if he makes a fair income. The sons of such men have always supplied many of the best scholars to the colleges, and many of them have won the highest distinction in after life. The professional classes feel the pressure of the conditions of life in the present day most severely, and nothing should be done to loosen the connexion between them and the older universities. But the regulation of such matters is a detail which might safely be left to the colleges.

Unequal distribution between different branches of study.

(*c.*) With regard to the branches of study which are rewarded by scholarships and exhibitions some further remarks will be made in dealing with the correlation of the teaching of schools with that of the universities. Much might be said in justification of the preponderance of classics in scholarship competitions at Oxford. It is to be hoped that classical knowledge, though it should cease to enjoy a plethora of rewards as at present, may for a long time to come have the pre-eminence. But the proportion of scholarships given for proficiency in classics at the present time is excessive. There are marked indications that the supply of trained classical scholars which is now kept up by endowments is disproportionate to the demand; other subjects which have shown their attractiveness by gaining ground without the help of endowments ought to be rewarded by a larger share of them. Scholarships in modern history are already increasing in number. More of college endowments should be given to natural science, and perhaps to law, not only on account of the importance of these studies, but because they are a preparation of various professional employments which

require a long and expensive training. The connexion between Oxford and the scientific professions should be closer than it is. Upon the kind of examination by which such scholarships in subjects other than classics might be awarded some remarks will be made in answering question 3.

Local restrictions.

As to the restrictions on eligibility to scholarships and exhibitions in favour of special areas, those which at present exist seem to me beneficial rather than injurious. A long-standing connexion between a college and a great public school is to the advantage of both. In the same way where there are endowments at any college on which natives of certain localities have the first claim, persons are not unfrequently drawn from those localities to the university, even when they do not obtain a scholarship or exhibition, who would not otherwise come thither. The feeling of attachment between a favoured locality and a college tends at the present time to become stronger rather than weaker. I think there is a general sentiment in favour of maintaining existing preferences. A college ought always to have the power, which it generally has, of throwing open any close endowment for which there is no sufficiently qualified candidate. When this is the case the local restrictions so far as they at present exist do not seem to me mischievous.

II.—In the answers to questions 3 (*a*) and (*b*) 1. My remarks on the relation between the curriculum of secondary boards and that of the universities will refer chiefly to the subjects of examination for responsions and entrance scholarships at the universities, to the help given to poor men at present, and to the means of extending this in the future. Under this latter head I shall also answer question 6 referring to the non-collegiate system.

Correlation of university and Secondary Education.

There can be no doubt that the present arrangements of Secondary Education are not so dependent on those of the university as they once were. When boys are being trained for scholarship competitions their education at school is perhaps more completely controlled by this aim than ever. But there are many other examinations besides those of the universities for which boys are now prepared, wholly or in part, at school. A "modern" side has been instituted at most of the great schools. There are some schools which are entirely "modern." The education which is given to the boys on the modern side of a school, or in modern schools, is not in close relation with that of the universities. The subjects which they have been chiefly taught may be recognised in the final schools at Oxford or Cambridge, but their knowledge of Latin is deficient, and they have commonly not been taught Greek. It is therefore difficult to discuss the questions here raised without considering whether or not it is desirable to make some relaxation in the rule which requires a knowledge of Greek from all candidates for responsions at Oxford. There will probably be many secondary schools in the future in which Greek will be rarely, if ever taught. Ought this university to waive its requirement of

Greek and to find an alternative in some modern language or branch of science?

It seems to me that the time has come when an option between Greek and a modern language should be given at responsions to those who prove themselves capable of reading for honours in mathematics or natural science, possibly to those who intend reading for honours in law and modern history. But this option should be given to honour students alone. I do not think it would be desirable to drop the requirements of Greek for the pass degree. I think too that in all or nearly all secondary schools it should be possible for boys to learn Greek if they wish to do so, although it may not be a regular part of the school course.

Some 10 years ago a change was made in the university statutes by which candidates for honours in the final schools of mathematics and natural science could be dispensed from all classical examinations after responsions. As responsions can be passed before matriculation, any aspirant for honours may devote himself from the time of his entrance at Oxford to the study of the subjects of his final honour schools. An examination has still to be passed after entrance in two of the gospels in the original Greek. But there is no other examination for which a knowledge of Greek is required. It seems to me that any one who shows his capacity for obtaining honours at least in mathematics or natural science might be excused the modicum of Greek now enforced, provided that he produces evidence of sufficient general training before entrance, either by passing an university examination or by obtaining a certificate from a competent examining body. It is true that the acquisition of this modicum of Greek is not a matter of so much difficulty as is sometimes supposed. I have myself given instruction to several men who, when about to enter the university, had no knowledge of the elements of Greek. An acquaintance with that language sufficient for passing responsions can be acquired by an able and industrious man in about six months; but during that time little leisure is left for the study of other subjects. There seems to me no reason for laying this burden on students who have a good education, and are qualified to gain distinction in that branch of knowledge to which they intend specially to devote themselves. I think it is desirable in the interests of the higher education to admit the abler boys from the secondary schools to the universities without requiring from them the acquaintance with Greek which is now exacted.

There are not the same reasons for making any change in the curriculum of the pass degree. In the first place the amount of Greek required for the pass degree is greater than that prescribed in responsions, and imparts a better training to the mind. All candidates for a pass degree at Oxford have, after passing responsions, to undergo four examinations. For the first of these (the first public examination) Greek and Latin are indispensable. The subject of one of the remaining three examinations must be

either a modern language, including a prepared book, or portions of the writings of two classical authors, one a historian and the other a philosopher. The great majority of candidates choose the latter alternative. They have thus to acquire an elementary knowledge of some of the great speculative questions which have exercised the human mind, and some power of dealing with them. No kind of study is so well adapted for this purpose as that of a work in the Greek language by some Greek master. The pass degree at Oxford stands fairly high in general estimation. The studies prescribed in the examination above-mentioned give that degree its chief value. In the second place, the candidates for a pass degree would not themselves wish to be dispensed from the necessity of learning Greek. These candidates belong generally to one of two classes. They are either men who have been educated in some school in which Greek is taught as a matter of course, but who have not the ability or industry to read for an honour degree; or else they are men of some intellectual power who have not been educated in a school of this kind, but who, with a view to their own self-improvement or advancement in life, wish to take a degree, and have not the time or previous training to enable them to read for honours. The former class need not be considered. Men of the latter class, even if they come up imperfectly acquainted with Greek, can very well bring their knowledge up to the level required. The great majority of these value the education they receive under the present system so highly that they would not avail themselves of any alternative to Greek if it were offered to them. It is not, in my opinion, at all desirable to admit inferior candidates for a pass degree to this university. If there were to be an improvement and extension of Secondary Education, it is to be hoped and expected that there would be in time a considerable accession to the ranks of the honour students at Oxford. The students for honours in certain subjects might well be relieved of the small amount of Greek now demanded of them. But the pass degree should be kept up to its present level. It would certainly be lowered at the present time if the requirement of Greek were dropped. I may add that while it is to be hoped that this university will in the future make some relaxation in the rule which requires a knowledge of Greek from all candidates for responsions, it seems to me very desirable not to deprive boys in secondary schools of the opportunity of learning this language if they wish to do so. It is quite possible that literary cultivation will rise rather than fall in popular estimation, and that the ambition of acquiring such cultivation will become more widely diffused. Respect for distinction of mind will probably rise as respect for other more adventitious forms of distinction decays. The best kind of literary cultivation is impossible without some knowledge of Greek. It seems to me desirable that there should be some elasticity in the curriculum of the schools, and that there should be an opportunity for the study of the old "humanities." It must also be the aim of education in the best

secondary schools to find out individual incapacity and give it scope; the drill that is given to the mass of boys in common is not sufficient. Anyone in this university who has had to do with men inured to this kind of drill and nothing more knows how difficult it is to get them out of a groove. The teacher who is to turn the best material to account must have had the best training himself. Hence nothing seems to me of more importance in Secondary Education than the quality of the headmasters and of the masters generally in the upper classes at schools. Even where a man has not to give the highest kind of education, he should himself have been educated on the highest plane. Only such a man will be fitted to enter into sympathy with the best minds with which he is brought into contact, to consult their highest interests, and to give the necessary elasticity to the system which he has to carry out. Moreover, if there is an increase in the number of secondary schools, and a better organisation among them, the collective experience of the headmasters will have much weight in determining their future development, and in settling various points of detail which cannot be determined beforehand. No doubt means are already taken in a great number of schools to secure the appointment of men of the highest stamp. But in those in which the mode of election and the qualifications of the headmaster have still to be defined, these seem to me points deserving careful attention.

The remarks I have submitted under the present heading will not be thought irrelevant if that view of the nature of education in secondary schools implied by them is accepted. The correlation between the arrangements of Secondary Education and those of the universities does not imply an exact correspondence between the teaching of the schools and that of the universities. It will always be the object of the higher school education to impart a sound general training. A boy's mind would be warped if he were allowed to concentrate his attention too early on one branch of study. When a man has reached the age of 19 (the usual age of entrance at Oxford), I see no harm in allowing him to concentrate his energies on the special study of his choice. There is no longer any fear that his mental horizon will be narrowed. The student of the older universities lives in an atmosphere in which intelligent minds develop fast and absorb many new ideas. When he has already received a liberal training, he may devote his energies to the acquisition of knowledge. What constitutes a liberal training of the mind? How should the studies of a school be arranged so as to secure this training? These are the points which will have to be settled whenever a scheme for the organisation of Secondary Education is prepared. The universities will then have to bring their entrance examinations into correlation with the studies of those schools, and those alone, which impart a liberal education. It is inevitable that there should be some change in the requirements of the universities. But if in the secondary schools the aim of imparting a liberal cultivation be steadily kept in view, no

violent change in the entrance examinations of the universities will be needed. It may be possible, in the entrance examinations for scholarships in classics, to give more attention to other portions of the school training, although in these examinations at the present time great pains are usually taken to discover and reward general ability. But there will be a greater danger of giving too special a character to the examinations for entrance scholarships in subjects other than classics. In such examinations equal regard should be paid to two points—evidence of ability, and evidence of fitness for the study hereafter to be pursued. A high standard of present attainment in that study is of less importance. Ability may be tested, partly by setting papers in subjects which have entered into a candidate's general training. Very great importance should always be attached to the power of thinking consecutively, and writing clearly in the mother tongue. I think too, that means may be found, without interfering with the independence of scholarship examinations, to give some weight to certificates of honour gained in school examinations conducted by any university authority.

University and poor students.

(*b.*)—It seems to me, as I have already said, that scholarships should be raised to a substantial value only for those who need assistance at the university. It would be too violent a change to take away all emolument from scholarships, although those who win them should be encouraged to resign any endowment attached to them where they can afford to do so. In this way a few more men might possibly be helped than at present. But it is not, I think, generally known how largely poor men are already benefited by the endowments of scholarships and exhibitions at Oxford. The exhibitions at this and at many colleges are restricted to those who are in need of assistance. On the scholarships, most of which are worth 80*l.* a year, there is no such restriction. But in my own college about three-fourths of those who have held scholarships for some years past could not have come to the university without substantial aid. I have no doubt that other colleges could tell a similar tale. During the last 30 years, the number of undergraduates at Oxford has doubled. This increase has come largely from sections of society which have no long-standing hereditary connexion with the universities. In every college there are far more men than formerly whose friends make a great struggle to send them to Oxford, and who are obliged to practice the most rigid economy. The advantages of Oxford are now by no means confined to the well-to-do classes. Many poor men are helped to obtain them by exhibitions from some source outside the university, but they are most materially aided by college scholarships, which, as a matter of fact, largely benefit poor men, though not limited to them. No very great change would, therefore, be effected by imposing a limitation in their favour, although I am decidedly of opinion that it ought to be imposed. There ought, I think, to be no attempt made, either now or hereafter, to restrict any part of

college endowments to particular classes of society. Persons who now have no opportunities for receiving an Oxford education may be fitted to receive it, and no body can make the best of Oxford education unless he has had a suitable training. This is an essential condition. Opportunities of acquiring such a training should, therefore, be much more widely diffused than at present, but, among those who require assistance, fitness for an Oxford education should alone be considered in the distribution of endowments at the university.

Non-collegiate system.

Much has already been done, and much more may be done, through the non-collegiate system to bring the advantages of an Oxford education within reach of students who cannot afford the ordinary expenses of college life. No doubt the censor of non-collegiate students will give information as to the number of admissions in past years, the present condition of the non-collegiate body, and the working of the system. I will try briefly to set forth from my own experience the merits and defects of the system, and the expansion of which it seems to me capable.

It combines the merit of economy with a thoroughly sound and complete mental training. Speaking roughly, the expense is about half that of life in a college. Each student lives in lodgings. But there is nothing strange or unusual in this mode of life, for about a third of the members of colleges spend a year or more in lodgings. The non-collegiate student has exactly the same educational advantages as the collegiate. He has access to all lectures open to members of the university, and, what is equally important, he has the personal care and superintendence of a capable tutor, not less than if he were residing in a college. On the other hand, he is not necessarily brought into contact with his fellow-students, as he would be if he were resident within the walls of a college. He has more difficulty in finding congenial associates. His life is not so gregarious. But these difficulties are to a great extent overcome by the organisation of clubs and societies within the non-collegiate body. Their athletic clubs compete in the same contests with those of the colleges and take rank beside them, and non-collegiate students have represented Oxford before now in the various forms of inter-university athletic competition. There is no social stigma within the university attaching to the name. The status of a non-collegiate student among undergraduate members of the university depends on his own personal qualities, and there are and always have been many men among them who are popular both within their own body and outside. No doubt there is much to be said in favour of the preference which will always be accorded to the college system. The sentiment of Oxford life has been concentrated in the colleges. The non-collegiate system never can have the same hold on the affections. But there is no need to disparage this system. It is a thoroughly efficient organisation, and gives all the substantial advantages

of Oxford life to those who desire them. Everything which helps to raise its prestige and value in the eyes of the world materially strengthens it. Nothing would do more to demonstrate its utility than the accession of any considerable body of well-trained students. The expense of the non-collegiate system will be the measure of the help that bodies outside the university will afford to any individual in order to bring an Oxford career within his reach. A non-collegiate student of frugal habits can pay his expenses of board, lodging, and tuition for less than 20*l.* a term, or 60*l.* a year. If a man receives an exhibition or scholarship of 50*l.* a year he will be able to come to Oxford with a little further help from private sources. Such endowments should not be restricted to the non-collegiate body. If a man can obtain some further aid in the way of an exhibition from a college, either before or after matriculation, by all means let him seek admission to a college. But the growth of the non-collegiate body through the accretion of competent members will raise its status and increase its attractions, and give to such men less reason for wishing to join any other society after matriculation. The non-collegiate system renders great service to the university by supplying the wants of other classes of students besides those who need assistance. But as these are generally men of maturer years and high aims, it is not necessary to enter on this topic here.

Training of teachers.

III.—In any well-organised system of Secondary Education the training of teachers will have its place, just as at present, in the organisation of elementary education. In the one case as in the other the certificate of every fully accredited master will testify both to knowledge and to practical efficiency. It seems to me that the universities are best qualified both to impart and to test knowledge. The universities may very well be expected to provide courses of lectures on the history and theory of education, and to invite eminent teachers from time to time to impart the results of their experience in courses of lectures on subjects chosen by themselves. The theoretical side of education will also be studied in books. Probably many candidates for a certificate will derive the whole or the greater part of their knowledge from books, if they have been unable to spare the time for attendance on lectures during their residence at the university. It might be desirable, for the sake of such candidates, to organise certain courses of lectures from time to time at centres in the country. In any case there would be no difficulty in providing a satisfactory scheme for teaching and of examination in the theory of education.

It is not easy to determine the best means of securing and testing practical efficiency. It has been suggested that the schools already existing in university towns might be used as practising schools, and that persons intending to become teachers might be required to teach classes for some short period, such as that now prescribed for the practical training of Queen's scholars

after their election and before they become qualified for a certificate. It seems to me that any such suggestion is impracticable, and that a certificate for practical efficiency granted on such terms would be almost worthless. The number of persons who take a degree with the intention of becoming teachers is far too great to receive proper attention in such local practising schools as could be found. The schools themselves would rarely be of such a character as to give a sufficiently wide and varied experience; and the time during which it would be possible for each student to obtain some individual attention and practice would be quite insufficient to secure efficiency. It is generally recognised that the true guarantee of efficiency among the teachers in elementary schools is the experience which the vast majority of Queen's scholars have already acquired during a long apprenticeship as pupil teachers. The few who have not undergone this apprenticeship have the greater part of their experience to gain after they become masters. Persons who are to be certificated teachers in secondary schools will be able to give security for their efficiency only after they have had some months' experience under the eye of a skilled master. For training of this kind a number of secondary schools might be selected, of various grades and in different parts of the country, and a certain number of students to be trained, proportioned to their numbers and teaching staff, might be attached to each. The certificate of practical efficiency might finally be awarded by competent authority, in conjunction with the headmaster of the school, and after such tests as it might be thought desirable to institute.

Some such scheme as this, which alone seems to me adequate if there is to be a real guarantee of practical efficiency, presents some difficulties. If there is to be a good supply of candidates for teacherships kept up, they will have to be maintained or partly maintained during their training. Probably many large schools would find it worth while to provide a small payment for two or three assistants of this kind who would do a good deal of useful work while learning their business. Some payment to candidates during their probation, from whatever source it be provided, seems to me desirable.

The authority which is to grant the certificate of practical efficiency will also have to be settled. The examiners or other officers, whatever their name, who would co-operate with the headmasters, whether they were appointed under the authority of the State or under that of the universities, would be very few, and the choice would be narrowly limited by fitness for this responsible and confidential duty. If they were remunerated by the State, they could hardly be appointed by any other authority. But as the total expense of their salary would not be large, the fees of the candidates might in great part cover it. If no payment were made by the State, the certificate of theoretical knowledge and of practical efficiency

might both be awarded by the universities; and this appears to me the preferable arrangement.

The remarks that I have ventured to submit to the Commissioners are necessarily somewhat fragmentary. I should wish to add a word as to the supposition under which they have been written. I have taken for granted that whenever Secondary Education is thoroughly organised, the older universities will find it necessary to re-consider their relation to the secondary schools, and I have expressed an opinion as to some few of the points on which existing arrangements will have to be modified. How will this modification be brought about? It seems to me that the older universities themselves acting in concert where necessary, as well as independently, will best be able, by their unfettered action, to consult their own and the common good. Since the Commission of 1854 Oxford and Cambridge have done a great deal for Secondary Education. They are likely to do still more in the future, as they are now fully sensible that their own interests and those of higher education in all its forms are the same.

MRS. A. H. JOHNSON.

The subjoined answers deal exclusively with the subject of Women's Education.

Correlation of University and Secondary Education for girls.

3. (*a*) (*b*) 1 & 2.—In spite of the marked improvement which has been made in the system of work in secondary schools for girls during the past 15 years, the correlation of studies with those of the University of Oxford, at any rate, does not yet seem to be complete.

I.—Sufficient care is not always taken that school girls, in offering themselves for local and other examinations, should select the subject required by the university as an equivalent to responsions or to the first examination for women and its equivalents.

From neglecting this, poor students have occasionally suffered by having to spend a part of their time at the university in qualifying for an entrance examination. The Oxford Halls for women students, it should be noted, also insist on the same entrance examination on the part of competitors for scholarships.

II.—Our teachers find generally that girls coming from high schools are on the whole better prepared for their university work than girls taught at home, so far as method and regular mental habits go, but that they fall behind them in accurate knowledge of special subjects, such as languages.

To be really well prepared for their university studies, the girls seem to require:—

(*a.*) In modern languages: more extended reading of the classics in each language; a wider vocabulary, and greater grammatical accuracy.

(*b.*) In other subjects: more special training towards a university standard of work.

Provision of secondary teachers.

4.—Of the 170 students permanently registered on the books of the Association for the Education of Women, 89 are at present teaching, or have taught, or intend to teach, in secondary schools.

[The 170 does not represent nearly all the students who have been on our books, but the proportion of 89 to 170 may be taken as a fairly correct average of the Oxford women students who have become, or are about to be, teachers in secondary schools.]

Training of secondary teachers.

5.—On this point the experience of the Association for the Education of Women in Oxford may be of value.

In October 1887, the association started a scheme in Oxford for the training of secondary teachers. It was hoped that our own students might reside for a year after their final schools in order to obtain a teaching certificate. An excellent mistress of method gave her services, and a practising school was secured. Two or three students only tried the experiment, and there has been no demand for it since.

The objections to the scheme seemed to be that: (1) the students could not spare the extra year before beginning to earn something, at least, of their living; (2) those who tried to combine the training with some of their examination work found the strain too great.

It seems more practicable to institute some system of apprenticeship for teachers during the first year of their work in a secondary school.

Non-collegiate system for women.

6.—In dealing with the non-collegiate system, it should be remembered that the circumstances of such women students are in some respects different to those of men. On the one hand nearly all reside at home or with relatives; on the other, the Oxford Home students unite with the Hall students for classes and work and lectures, and are under the same tutors. So that they are not kept apart, as is the case with men; at least with respect to their tutorial work.

For the rest we are convinced of the need and success of a non-collegiate system for women students. The Oxford association has had such students from the beginning of its work. A large proportion have either been teachers already who have come to Oxford to pursue some special study for a time, or to improve their position by university certificates, or students preparing for the teaching profession.

These students would, most of them, have been unable to come to the university if they had been obliged to enter a Hall: (*a*) The expense would have been greater, even with a scholarship. (*b*) Some were unable to leave the relatives with whom they lived. (*c*) Some needed the rest and quiet of a solitary life. (*d*) Many were only able to spend a short time in Oxford, and would not have been welcome at a Hall.

We have no doubt that those who were already teachers strengthened their work as such by their time of study in Oxford. We have not heard of any difference in the value of the influence or work of a Home student as compared with that of a Hall student in secondary schools. The home students have obtained good posts and have been successful in them. Perhaps some of them have even gained in character by having had practice in carrying on their own education in the midst of home duties and interruptions.

MR. E. J. GROSS.

Caius College, Cambridge,
July 26th, 1894.

SIR,

I HAVE to reply to your letter of May 2nd asking for an expression of my opinion on certain topics with regard to which I have had special experience

My experience has been confined principally to the *second* of the topics named.

University examining agencies.

2. The local examinations and the examinations of the joint board have done much to raise the teaching in the lower and higher grades of secondary schools, and to bring them into closer contact with the universities. Speaking roughly it may be said that the local examinations deal with the candidates as individuals, and the joint board as members of school forms and in each case have supplied good tests.

It may be mentioned that all these systems of examination are entirely self-supporting.

The two principal examinations of the joint board—those for higher and lower certificates—are aimed at the ages at which boys leave school, namely, 18 or 19 and 16 respectively, and they (especially those for H. certificates) have been much used also in girls' schools. The higher certificate examination is an avenue to the universities and professions, the lower to professions and business. In all subjects they have improved the work of the schools in definiteness. In particular (1) they have made the practice of unprepared translation of Latin and Greek passages to be adopted generally in schools; (2) they have introduced greater accuracy into the work in elementary mathematics; and (3) have extended the range of reading in mathematics so as to take in dynamics more generally.

Further the board has been an outside authority for providing examiners for ordinary school examinations, with which it has in most cases combined its own certificate examinations. Such school examinations are usually confined to the upper parts of the schools; because (1) the examinations of the lower part of a school is carried out better by the head and other masters who have the confidence of the governing bodies, (2) the work in the lower forms is efficiently tested by the examination of the upper forms when some questions are set on the elementary parts of the subjects.

Whatever success the board may have achieved is mainly due (1) to the cordial co-operation in its administration and examinations of representatives from both universities, which has given greater weight to its decisions and greater liberality to its policy than probably would have been attained in any other way; (2) to frequent and frank communications between the board and headmasters, whether in conference or individually. These have secured that on the one hand the examinations are closely adapted to the work of the schools, and on the other a reasonable standard in each subject has been maintained.

Correlation of university and secondary education.

3. (*a.*)—At present the arrangements of the universities are closely correlated with those of the secondary schools which give a classical education; but not so much with modern sides of schools, nor with schools giving only a modern education. This want of correlation with certain schools or with certain portions of them may be expected to become more accentuated when, as seems likely to be the case, the education at the smaller grammar schools become more modernized. Probably this difficulty might be overcome if on the one hand the schools devote a portion of a boy's time during his last year or two at school to the study of Greek, and on the other the universities give weight to a knowledge of English and science in their first examinations.

I am, &c.

To the Secretary. (Signed) E. J. Gross.
Royal Commission on Secondary Education.

MISS KENNEDY.

College scholarships and exhibitions.

1. (*a.*)—It is difficult to estimate yet the effects on girls' schools of application of funds, as so few funds are available for girls.

So far as I have seen the effects of competition for scholarships on girls' school they have been good, partly in keeping girls longer at school, and raising the standard of the sixth form.

(*b.*)—I think that the restriction of college scholarships and exhibitions to special areas is undesirable.

The foundation locally of scholarships restricted to special areas may be desirable,—endowments are obtained by appeals to local feeling, and small schools with no special endowments of their own get a share of such endowments—the competition may be a wholesome stimulant to them, but the standard needs careful guarding.

I remember some scholarships formerly restricted to boys born in Shropshire, and tenable at a particular college, which sometimes went by default to inferior candidates from some of the smaller schools.

There should, I think, be the widest possible choice as to the university and college at which locally-restricted scholarships may be held.

Some of the schools have developed much more freely since most of the close scholarships were opened by the Universities Commission of 1854, and the Public Schools and Endowed Schools Commissions.

1. (*b.*)—Poverty restrictions at the universities are, I think, also undesirable. In order to draw to the universities the best intellect, both of men and women, all scholarships and prizes should be open to perfectly free competition. Such a system would be for the advantage of all in providing the most efficient teachers.

The decision as to what constituted a poverty claim must always be arbitrary. To many whose parents would never have pleaded a poverty qualification, the gaining of a scholarship has yet been the turning point which has decided their coming to the university. This applies even more in the case of women than of men, because few parents have come to look upon the higher education of their daughters as a necessity, or as an investment for the sake of which it is worth while to make any considerable sacrifice.

If there are to be poverty restrictions, it seems best that scholarships so awarded should be awarded in schools, or in limited areas, with the greatest possible freedom as to the university or college at which they may be held.

University examining agencies.

2.—From my own experience, and from the opinions I have been able to collect, I think that the local examinations have done, and are still doing, very valuable work. They are most useful in giving a standard of thorough work to private schools, and to schools in backward neighbourhoods.

For schools of the highest class, which do not need competition with other schools to keep up a high standard, I think the best system is the annual examination of the whole school by a university examiner. The local examination syndicates have done excellent work in providing for this. Such an examination of the whole school was one of the recommendations of the

Public Schools Commission of 1862, and it was at once adopted at Shrewsbury with very satisfactory results.*

Where this plan is too costly for single schools, might not some scheme be made for the examination of schools in groups? There might be a common standard of comparison—not necessarily a common curriculum.

The Cambridge Higher Local Examination has been specially helpful to private teachers, and to women working in their own homes. One of its best points is the encouragment it gives to a consecutive, rather than a simultaneous, choice of subjects.

Correlation of university and secondary education.

3 (*b.*) (2).—As to the correlation of the arrangements in girls' schools with those of the universities, we are still too much in the experimental stage to speak definitely.

With the exception of the North London Collegiate School and Cheltenham College, all the public schools for girls have grown up side by side with the colleges for women; an increasing proportion of the women students have been drawn from them, and in turn the students have gone to them as teachers. This leads to an interchange of communication as to common aims and mutual needs, which should gradually bring about a satisfactory correlation of arrangements.

I think that the opening of the university honours examinations is making itself felt in all the best schools for girls, and is giving more definiteness to girls' education.

Much help might be given by larger endowments. Not to speak of scholarships, they are much needed for the better payment of teachers generally, and more particularly for the payment of teachers of special subjects.

The main defect in the better girls' schools is, I think, the number of subjects taught at once, which causes a want of grasp and accuracy in any one subject. Without wishing to encourage too early specialisation, I think that women generally would gain more from a university course if they came up with more knowledge of a few subjects, instead of a superficial knowledge of many.

Provision and training of teachers.

4.—I cannot from my own experience say to what extent teachers of secondary schools are provided by the universities. I have made an analysis of the educational posts held by former students of Newnham College, which may, when compared with the returns sent by schools for girls, give some results.

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* There are classes of girls which the public day schools yet hardly touch for which I think much needs to be done. One great need is the provision of more intermediate schools to meet the wants of children whose parents would not send them to the elementary schools, but who are often not capable of profiting by the teaching of the high schools, even where these exist, on account of the want of any early teaching or literary associations in their own homes. If arrangements were made for boarding in connexion with such schools, this might reach the daughters of the smaller farmers, who are mostly, so far as my experience goes, sent to very inferior boarding schools. Another need is the provision of higher teaching in towns where the population is not large enough to support a really efficient school. Here might not a scheme be made for grouping of schools within a certain radius, and the endowment of visiting teachers of special subjects?

5.—I think, if the training of teachers is to be very general, it is of the utmost importance that the control and direction of the movement should rest with the universities, and especially with the older universities. They should provide and examine upon the theoretical part of the training.

(Signed) MARION G. KENNEDY.

TABLE showing EDUCATIONAL POSTS held by STUDENTS of NEWNHAM COLLEGE.

Total number of students having left the college from October 1871 to June 1893	720
Leaving out 16 who have died and 37 foreigners who have gone back to their own countries, the remainder is	667
Number taking teaching as a profession in 1894	374

	Head Mistresses.	Assistant Mistresses.	
Schools of the Public Day Schools Company	6	36	
Endowed schools	14	23	
Proprietary and other high schools	29	66	
Private schools	24	32	
Elementary schools and training colleges	2	13	
	75	170 =	245

Lecturers at Newnham College	12
Lecturers elsewhere	10
Principal of the Cambridge Training College	1
Visiting teachers	23
Teachers under county or borough councils	4
Teachers in the Colonies and in America	27
Private governesses	23
Teachers taking an interval of rest or study	14
Teachers looking for posts	7
Teachers from whom no return has been lately received	8
	374

MISS MAITLAND.

Somerville College, Oxford.

1. (*a.*)—As regards girls I think this question should be addressed to headmistresses. I may state, however, that some headmistresses of important schools have expressed to me an College scholarships and exhibitions.

opinion that it would be greatly to the advantage of schools if all scholarships intended for girls of the age for leaving school could be awarded, not on an examination in special subjects at the colleges, but on the results of the Oxford and Cambridge Board Examination for the higher certificate. The excitement, premature specialisation, special teaching, and dropping of other work, now often involved in preparation for a scholarship competition would thus be avoided, the scholarships being awarded on work done in the regular school course. At the same time, though I see advantages in this plan, I cannot but think that it would be undesirable (1st) to impose restrictions of age on scholarships for women, (2nd) to do anything which would tend to deprive girls and women above school age of the chance of obtaining the advantages of college life. It frequently happens that young women who have been unable to obtain such advantages directly after their school course closed, and have perhaps been teaching or otherwise employing themselves for some years, have saved something with the definite intention of entering college, and by means of a scholarship are enabled to do so. The difficulty might probably be met by dividing the scholarships into two sets, one set to be known as school scholarships, to be awarded on the results of the Board examinations all over England, the others, college scholarships, to be awarded as now in examinations on special subjects held at the colleges—the school candidates should be required to state, before the examination, which college they wished to enter. I have no desire to see a competition between colleges for individual girls.

1. (*b.*)—In the present condition of women's education, and considering the very small endowments available, I think that while the daughters of rich men should be allowed to compete for scholarships, and take the title of honorary scholar, no girl should be allowed to hold a scholarship from school to college, or a college scholarship, unless her father or guardian will sign a declaration that he is unable to give her a college education without help.

University examining agencies.

2.—I consider that the local examination and the joint board have effected great improvements in the teaching in secondary schools for girls. The teaching is more accurate, thorough, and definite in intention than it was formerly. I should prefer to see the joint board examination adopted in place of the locals in all the best secondary schools.

At the same time it is not possible, in all places, and in all schools classed as secondary, to raise the standard of the whole school up to the required level, at present, and hence arises an abuse which I should like to mention. In some schools, in which the general level is not high, one or two parents wish their girls to be prepared for London matriculation, the joint board higher certificate, or the Cambridge higher local, examinations admitting to the universities. The work cannot be fitted in to the classes,

it is done by private tuition, in the private time of the teachers, and becomes entirely an "extra," but one for which the teacher receives no extra payment whatever. In such schools—really lower grade secondary schools—where the fees are usually low, the parent should not be encouraged to expect that such teaching should be a necessary part of the school course, but to recognise that extra fees must be paid for it.

The work of extension delegacies and syndicates has not, I think, appreciably affected secondary schools for girls, though extension lectures have been given at some good private schools.

Correlation of university and secondary education.

3.—Insufficiency as regards girls. The teaching of Latin given to girls is often very poor. It does not seem to be realised, either by parents or headmistresses, that some knowledge of Latin is desirable for any girl who is coming to the university, whether she intends to take up classical study or not. Latin, to about the responsions standard, is invaluable for a student of history, of modern languages, of English language and literature, and girls are constantly kept back by their ignorance of it.

I understand that in some quite modern schemes for girls' schools, Latin may not be taken as part of the regular school course. This is, I think, the case at Monmouth.

The standard of work in mathematics has undoubtedly advanced in the last few years, though it still leaves a good deal to be desired. It is taught much more generally throughout the schools than Latin is—much more time seems to be devoted to it. No doubt this is due largely to the requirements in this subject of Cambridge and London, and to the number of teachers sent out from each place. It is to be hoped that the language requirements of Oxford may in time tell in the same way.

Provisions of secondary teachers.

4.—The number of women who have had a college education and are teaching in secondary schools, both of the lower and the higher grades, is daily increasing; but, of course, the increase is greatest among schools of the high school type.

Training of teachers.

5.—I should like to see established at each university a course of lectures open to men and women, on the science and history of teaching, including some account of the lives and methods of great educationalists. I should propose that this course should cover one year, with lectures once a week at least, and should be taken in the second or third year of a student's work—whichever was considered the least arduous part of their other course. The question of an examination then would require careful consideration; but possibly it might be well to allow, but not insist upon, purely theoretic examinations of not too severe a character. I should not wish a training college with the necessary practising classes to form any part of the university. It appears to me to be the business of the university to give instruction in the theory only. The practice, once the

theory is understood, should be acquired elsewhere. After one or two years' work, either in a training college or as assistant in a school, any candidates who could produce a certificate of attendance at the recognised lectures should be at liberty to offer themselves for examination both in the theory and practice of teaching if they desired it, or in the practical work only, if the theoretic examination had been already taken. The university would thus fulfil its proper functions of teaching and testing work done, while the actual experience as a teacher would also be acquired in its proper place—the school. Assistant teachers would enter on their teaching life under much better conditions than at present, and probably schools would benefit largely. It is possible that the examination might with advantage be opened to those who had already been teaching for a certain number of years—for registration purposes.

(Signed) AGNES C. MAITLAND,
Principal of Somerville Cottage.

I am requested to state that Miss Wordsworth, Principal of Lady Margaret Hall, has seen this paper and agrees with it, except as regards 1, 6. She desires no such restriction to be imposed as is there suggested.

(Signed) AGNES C. MAITLAND.

MR. PERCY EWING MATHESON, M.A., Secretary of the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board.

College scholarships and exhibitions.

Question 1.—College Scholarships and Exhibitions.

(*a.*) What are the effects on schools of present application of funds and methods of competition ?

The effects may be considered from two points of view :—

(1.) Effects upon school studies ;
(2.) Effects in the selection of candidates.

(1.) *Specialisation of Studies.*

The fact that scholarships and exhibitions are mainly given for proficiency in some special branch of knowledge rather than for general knowledge, while promoting these studies themselves has some tendency to produce one-sided education in the candidates (*see* Report of Conference on Secondary Education, pp. 31–34); but it must be borne in mind that this tendency is modified in some measure by :—

1st. The requirement of the first university examination, or the equivalent certificate.

2nd. The importance attached in most scholarship examinations to general ability, or intelligence shown in an English essay or "General Paper."

But nevertheless, especially in the case of scholarships for mathematics or natural science, and in a less degree for those in history, the early specialisation encouraged by scholarships results in some cases in an illiberal education.

The remedy lies—(1) in attaching more importance to the general part of examinations for special subjects; (2) possibly in the introduction of optional papers in scholarship examinations which should have weight in the election of scholars. I have known cases in the examination for the New College Scholarships at Winchester, where, *e.g.*, a paper in some branch of natural science has been set to a classical candidate with scientific tastes, who on classics alone would not have had enough opportunity to show his ability.

Distraction of Studies.

The headmasters complain that scholarship examinations interrupt the term's work. This is partly true; but the evil has been considerably lessened by the grouping of college scholarship examinations, and there is no possible system of awarding scholarships which entirely avoids this difficulty.

(2.) *Effects in the Selection of Boys.*

Speaking broadly, I think that scholarships and exhibitions are given to the right class of boys. I believe, 1st, that a very large proportion of the existing holders of scholarships and exhibitions (I am now speaking of those which are open, and given purely by examination) would find it impossible, and many more would find it difficult, to come to Oxford without such help;* 2nd, that comparatively few boys who would be likely to gain by an university education are prevented from getting it by poverty, *provided they are in a favourable area, i.e.*, within reach, geographically and financially, of an efficient school leading to the university That is, the problem is rather to provide schools which educate boys up to scholarship standard, than to provide maintenance for the scholars so produced; 3rd, that the number of scholarships given at present is quite large enough, if not already too large, *i.e.*, that the standard of attainment cannot safely be lowered. And it must be remembered, 4th, that many colleges, besides giving scholarships and exhibitions by competitive examination, give exhibitions both to holders of scholarships who need further help, and to other poor and deserving undergraduates who are in need of help.

* In the case of many families it means the difference between sending one boy or two to the University.

Restrictions on eligibility.

Question 1. (*b*).—Are restrictions on eligibility desirable in the interests of poor students or special areas?

The answer depends partly on a preliminary question which must be raised, viz., What proportion of poor students is it desirable to attract to the universities? Clearly, I think, only those for whom a university education forms a natural avenue to some career, business or profession. Unless a man has enough ability to make his way in some calling after his university course it is a mistake to bring him here. There are, I fear, a good many instances of men of mediocre ability who should properly have begun their technical training at 18 or 19, who find themselves at 22 or 23 struggling in the lower ranks of some profession for which they are ill-fitted. If we could get rid of some of these, and have instead some of the abler men who, from want of school opportunities, never find their way here, the change would be a gain to the universities and to the professions. The danger of an "academical proletariate" is a real one (*see* Report of Secondary Education Conference, p. 24). In other words, the number of men to whom the nation can afford to give an university education is not unlimited, and the problem is not so much to increase the quantity as to improve the quality of our scholars. The main points to keep in view in dealing with the scholarship question are:—

(*a.*) To keep up by all means the prestige of scholars as a most valuable leaven in college society, by raising rather than lowering the standard at present required.

(*b.*) Not to increase the number of scholars, but to improve their quality by opening up more avenues of approach, and so raising the standard by competition.

The *imposition of restrictions on eligibility* would set more money free to spend on assistance to the actually poor; but the amount so gained would not be very considerable, and there would be serious risks attaching to such a change.

1st. Such restrictions must limit the present competition for scholarships, and so injure the prestige at present attached to a scholar's status, which is a valuable factor in college life. It would be disastrous in any way to lower the position of a scholar in college.

2nd. A "poverty clause" would be difficult to work. If liberally drawn it would effect comparatively little saving, while if too rigidly drawn (*i.e.*, with a definite limit of parents' income without regard to family necessities), it must exclude many members of a class not of the absolutely poor, but of the comparatively poor, the sons of the poorer clergy, teachers, and other professional and business men, who give their children the educational atmosphere which fits them for university life, but are often not rich enough to send them to the university.

The best way.—The problem would most satisfactorily be met by such a change in public opinion as would ensure that really

rich parents returned the emoluments of the scholarships while while their sons retained the status.

The second best way.—Failing this the best solution would be to lower the pecuniary value of scholarships to a nominal sum (*e.g.*, to 20*l.* or 30*l.* a year) and to supplement it in the case of poor scholars, on application from them, out of the money thus paid over into the exhibition fund.

Wants of Special Areas.

(1.)—The wants of special areas are to be met by a provision of a first-grade school, or the possibility of a first-grade education, in every area. The size of the area may be a matter of discussion, and may well differ in various parts of England, but the question has been made much easier by the improvement in the means of communication (*see* Report of Secondary Education Conference, p. 30). When the whole country is properly mapped out into educational areas, each having at least one first grade school in connexion with the schools below it, the requirements of special areas would I believe be met.

(2.)—In this connexion I think it most important that the first-grade element in grammar schools and other schools of that type in thinly peopled areas should not be allowed to disappear. There are some schools which from time to time send up a good scholar to the university, often a man of small means, who would not have been able to get the necessary schooling if the school of his district had been converted into a second-grade school by, say, the exclusion of Greek. No doubt in many such provincial schools the general type of education given will not be of the highest grade; but it is very important that this higher element should not be excluded by statute, and that the headmaster should be a man capable of preparing boys for the university. The question must not be settled on merely numerical grounds; the number of boys passing to the university may be small, but it is a great matter for the school and for the neighbourhood to maintain the contact with the university unimpaired, and the loss to the higher education of any severance of this connexion would I believe be great.

It must always be remembered that a university scholarship of the present value is not sufficient by itself to support a man at the university, so that in any case some local assistance, by scholarship or exhibition, must be forthcoming. But if this were provided as occasion arose for candidates judged deserving, the local burden would not be a heavy one.

I think that to restore local restrictions for college scholarships, where they have been removed, would be a doubtful gain. No argument can be drawn from "close scholarships" from the great public schools, such as Winchester scholarships at New College, Oxford, or the scholarships from Eton at King's College, Cambridge, as in both these cases (1) the schools from which

the scholars are drawn is not a local but a national one: (2) the college is sufficiently in contact through its open scholarships with other schools to prevent any serious decline of standard. Of strictly local restrictions I have had no experience, but I think that it would be a doubtful expedient to revive them where they have disappeared.

University examining agencies.

Question 2.—What is your opinion of the working of the local examinations, joint board, and extension delegacies, syndicates, or committees (as the case may be) in relation to Secondary Education?

2.—I think that both the local examinations and the examinations of the joint board have done much to raise the standard of teaching in the lower and higher grades of secondary schools, and to bring them into closer and more vital connexion with university teaching. They have, it is true, lacked something of completeness, the local examinations being primarily examinations of individuals, and those of the joint board mainly examinations of selected classes: but even so they have effected, on the whole, very satisfactory tests both of the elementary and of the higher teaching of secondary schools.

In the examinations of the joint board, of which I have special knowledge (as secretary of the board for seven years), the points which I think most worth noting are:—

1. The board is self-supporting.
2. Its examinations for certificates (higher and lower), though mainly applied to the *higher* forms of schools, have set a standard of requirement in elementary knowledge which has had a very distinct influence on schools: *e.g.*, in improving their work in unprepared translations in Latin and Greek, and insisting on accuracy in elementary mathematics.
3. Its other examinations adapt themselves, without a lowering of standard, to the special needs of different schools, and have given many schools an opportunity they would otherwise not have had for testing themselves by a real and responsible standard.
4. The higher certificates have helped to promote the economy of examinations by serving as a useful *abiturienten examen*, exempting men from the first university examinations and from the preliminary examinations of the chief professional bodies.

The success of the board so far has been mainly due—

1. To the common action in its administration and its examinations of the two universities. This has given greater weight and greater liberality to its policy throughout.

2. To the fact that it has been able to secure the services of many of the best men in the universities, a considerable proportion of whom have had practical experience in school teaching.
3. To the constant and frank communications which have been kept up between the board and individual headmasters and governing bodies, and the occasional conferences on questions of importance with representative bodies of headmasters and others interested in education

I believe that the result of these facts has on the whole been to secure in the examination of the board the maintenance of a reasonable standard without pedantry.

It is worth while adding that the school examinations of the board have generally been limited to the examination of the upper forms of schools, and on the whole I believe that this is wise, for these reasons:—

1st. The examination of lower forms is likely to be better conducted by a headmaster who understands the relation of the different forms to one another, than by an external examiner.

2nd. The work of the lower forms is really and efficiently tested by the examination of the upper forms, where the results of the grounding in all subjects is put to the test.

Inspection.

The title of the board "for the *inspection* and examination of schools," suggests a remark upon "inspection." Inspection has not been interpreted by the board in the sense of complete inspection of the general arrangements and curriculum of a school. It is the rule of the board to require one examiner at least to visit the school where a school examination is held, and in the case of some school this is combined with an oral examination of parts of the school; but the latter is not compulsory, and in general a report is not made by the school examiner on the general arrangements of the school. In some cases the answers to papers set by the board are marked by the masters, and then "inspected" and reported on by the board's examiners; but beyond "inspection" in this limited and technical sense the work of the board does not generally go.

In dealing with the large schools, whether public or proprietary, inspection in the wider sense seems to me almost impossible, for the following reasons:—

A general inspection of a first-grade secondary school, if it is to be accepted as authoritative by a governing body, demands much rarer qualifications in one who conducts it than an examination of upper forms in this or that subject of instruction. The number of men qualified to speak with authority on the general arrangements and conduct of, *e.g.*, Eton or Harrow or Clifton or Rugby is very small indeed, and it is next to impossible to secure their services. Such men, to speak

with any weight, must be men of the very first rank in the teaching profession. My belief is that, apart from inspection as to sanitation and space, which I think must be made compulsory in all secondary schools, such matters (important as they are) as the general arrangements and conduct of a school must be left in the main to the control of (1) their governing bodies, which of course should be made as effective as possible, (2) to the possibly more potent influences of public opinion and competition.

It is to be remembered that such schools, especially the older public schools, live much more under the eyes of the public, and are subject to much more powerful criticism from individuals and through the Press than any elementary schools.

But there is nothing in the constitution of the board to prevent its extending its work in this direction, if requested to do so by the authorities of schools. It has two great advantages for this work which no other body possesses in equal measure: 1st, it is in close communication with both universities and with the schools which mainly feed them; 2nd, it has considerable knowledge of the *personnel* of examiners and inspectors.

Non-collegiate system.

Question 6.—What effect (if any) has the introduction of the non-collegiate system had upon Secondary Education? What effect may it, in your opinion, be made to have?

6.—Very little effect. The provisions of scholarships and exhibitions is on the whole so adequate (*see* 1) that (with the exception of unfavoured areas named above) most poor men with ability sufficient to justify an university education who have had a fair schooling, can obtain scholarships at a college, and with help from minor exhibitions or school scholarships can maintain themselves. Planted alongside of a number of colleges and with the intenser intellectual and social life of colleges competing with them, this body tends to become an imperfect college, aiming at the college ideal but lacking the strong *esprit de corps* and the social and educational forces of a real college. It is doubtful whether it could ever be made so strong an educational instrument as a college. One or two tendencies of recent growth may, however, help to strengthen its position.

(1.) The new arrangements by which Queen's scholars may use the university as a training college will by degrees attract some of the picked candidates from the profession of elementary teachers to come to the universities; some of them may get college exhibitions, but there will be some who, not having quite enough ability to get these, will find college life too expensive, and will prefer to join the non-collegiate body.

(2.) The growth in the number of older men coming here for special studies has been considerable, and is likely (especially if a new "research degree" is established) to increase still more. For such students the non-collegiate body offers obvious

advantages. This class of student has little to do with Secondary Education, but the increase of dignity which it would give to the non-collegiate body would help to make it a much more satisfactory instrument of education by supplying the atmosphere of scholarship which it so sadly lacks.

It is a difficult question how far the number of students here (apart from foreigners) can with advantage be increased. The question (*see above* under 1) really is: What proportion of the population can afford an education, up to 22 or 23, which is not distinctly technical or professional? The number of men getting an education beyond school is no doubt growing, but a large part of the increase is naturally absorbed by the local university colleges, and we must take into account the fact that, although improved local organisation will bring an increase in the number of poor students fit for an university training, this will hardly do more than balance the number of the unfit who already come here, and who in time will be crushed out by their abler competitors. The increase of numbers (exclusive of foreigners) is not likely to be large; it may be provided for either by the existing colleges accepting a larger number of students not residing within the walls, which (from the loss to unity of college life and feeling) many colleges would hesitate to do, or, after existing colleges have their full complement, by an increase in the non-collegiate body. But in face of this uncertainty, the manifest advantages of college teaching are so great that it would be a questionable policy to stimulate the non-collegiate body by artificial aids, when already some of the colleges which are doing good work and which are far more potent and valuable instruments of education are finding it hard to maintain their existence.

Universities in relation to public services.

Question 7.—What has been the influence of the universities on the preparation of students for the public services?

7.—The universities have of late been brought into closer relations with the public services, and I think with advantage to both.

(1.) A fair number of men come here on their way into the army, either 1st, proceeding only as far as moderations, or 2nd, staying up for the entire university course.

(2.) The examination for the Indian Civil Service has recently been brought into closer connexion with university studies. The service has in this way attracted and will continue to attract some of the ablest men here, and university life has gained by being brought into contact with an important and interesting profession.

(3.) The examinations for the Home Civil Service are less closely related at present to university studies, although many men gain appointments in this service. It would be a gain if these examinations were assimilated to the examination for the Indian Civil Service. It is clearly desirable that the great public services should, as far as may be, be accessible through

the ordinary avenues of higher education, and that their *personnel* should consist of those who have enjoyed the contact with men and studies which university life affords.

(4.) Diplomatic Service and Foreign Office. Some of the most distinguished of the younger men have taken the honour course here in history or literæ humaniores. The knowledge of foreign languages required can easily be got in the long vacations or after the university course.

On the whole, then, the relation of the university to those services tends to make the services more freely open to the ablest and best educated men of the nation, and to bring the universities into more vital relation to the wider interests of the national life.

(Signed) P. E. MATHESON.

New College, May 29th, 1894.

THE VERY REV. THE DEAN OF CHRIST CHURCH.

Christ Church, Oxford,

SIR, June 8th, 1894.

I BEG leave to acknowledge gratefully the opportunity which the Royal Commissioners on Secondary Education have been so good as to give me by the questions which they have sent me. Availing myself of that opportunity, I desire to express such opinions as I have been able to form on 1. (*b*) the restriction of exhibitions in the interest of poor students, and on (5) the part which the universities ought to take in the training of secondary teachers.

College scholarships and exhibitions; poverty restrictions.

I. With regard to the former of these two points, I should be glad if far more poor students of the right sort could be enabled to come to Oxford, and to become members of a college. I believe that the right selection of such students is very difficult. An examination requiring high attainment is likely to assign the help to those who have managed somehow to secure the same advantages which richer youths enjoy in early training; practically two or three more scholars are elected, differing chiefly in that they have declared their need of help and are placed in a somewhat ambiguous position. On the other hand, it would be a manifold misfortune if, by the mere adoption of a lower standard in examination, the increase of exhibitions for poor students led to the formation in the colleges of considerable groups of members on the foundation of the college but plainly inferior in ability to the scholars; and to the augmentation in England of the class of men whom an university education has alienated from the rougher tasks of life, and not enabled for the more subtle. I believe that what is to be desired and aimed at, though it may be very hard to secure, is that in the award of an exhibition the main inquiry should be as to capacity rather than attainment; that a really high

standard should be maintained, but that the eminence required should be in ability to use well the best opportunities of an university. It happens occasionally—and not, I think, very seldom—that an exhibitioner or a commoner during the time he spends at Oxford gains on all the scholars, who, it may be, beat him in the scholarship examination; so that at the end of the course he is found to have profited most of all in his year, and to be taking with him into the world the fullest share of all that Oxford can give a man for the work of life. In such a case it is obvious to say that the examiners made a mistake; but it may not be true. The truth may be that at the time of the examination the scholar had attained more than the commoner or exhibitioner; but that the commoner or exhibitioner could receive and appropriate more than the scholar ever could. And scholarship examinations are but one part in a large and strong system, which reaches from the preparatory school to the end of what is ordinarily called a man's education. One part in such a system may deviate slightly, but not much, from the rest; and what this system as a whole discerns and advances and rewards is attainment, not capacity as such. Capacity, of course, emerges and wins prizes in the system; but, generally, it has to prove itself in attainment—and, generally, attainment in the earlier years of life depends on opportunities and advantages as well as on capacity — and, generally, opportunities and advantages cost money.

It is for these reasons that I would urge that, if endowments are to be devoted to helping poor students, the help should be allotted otherwise than by the method of a scholarship examination. That method is, I think, very good for its proper purpose and for its place in the system to which it belongs; but it is set —and at present it seems irretrievably set—towards something else than that which should be kept in view, when the purpose is to select from among poor men those who may best profit by an university career. That selection is peculiarly difficult; for there is a considerable element of risk in bringing to the university a man whose antecedents and prospects are unlike those of the majority of undergraduates; the venture is often amply justified, but it should be very carefully made. Capacity, strength of will, power of work, thoughtfulness, docility, independence, these are the qualities which will enable a man to overcome at Oxford the difficulties he may bring with him out of straitened circumstances, to gain the very best that Oxford offers, and to reward a thousandfold in his later work the help that has been given him. They are, of course, qualities to be desired in all students, but the need of them is enhanced in the case of those for whom the university course is not a normal stage towards a position which has been all along anticipated, but (as things are, and seem likely for some while to be) an exceptional call to opportunities, duties, and difficulties of unexpected complexity. And such qualities are not best detected or tried by a scholarship examination. At the risk of seeming

radically reactionary, I venture to say that the old method of entrusting to individuals the privilege and the responsibility of choosing men so qualified for advancement was a likelier way; and that I believe some revival of it, if it were possible, would work well in the interest of poor students, of the universities, and of the country. With such a revival of nominations by individuals to a place on the foundation of a college (or without it, if it is beyond recall or hope), I think that power should be given to the governing bodies of colleges to bestow exhibitions or grants of money upon poor men, of whose distinctive ability they are well assured, without examination, or with such separate examination as might be thought appropriate. Further, I think that in many places endowments would be well administered by local authorities, who might send poor students from their own town or district to Oxford or Cambridge, providing them with sufficient means, and recommending them for admission to a college with the status of honorary scholar, honorary exhibitioner, or commoner, as the college authorities, after inquiry, might decide. The good administration of such local endowments is one of the many benefits which may, I hope, attend the extension of university teaching.

Training of teachers.

II. With regard to the latter of the two points of which I want to speak—the part which the universities ought to take in the training of secondary teachers—I feel sure that the best service which Oxford and Cambridge can render to Secondary Education depends wholly on their retaining in its integrity their own traditional character. If this be steadily preserved they may, I hope, send out men who will help to keep up a high standard and conception of teaching in all the sub-divisions of Secondary Education. Especially, I should hope for this if more poor students, of the sort which I have tried to describe, could be brought to the universities. For such men might I think, betake themselves to the work of secondary teachers, with rare and valuable qualifications for it. In many cases, they might go to work among those whom their own early circumstances and associations would enable them to understand with a peculiar sympathy and insight. They would set themselves with especial skill to take their stand with those they had to teach; their own experience and recollection working with that power and desire to understand others which belong to the highest culture. They would start with a personal knowledge, which the considerateness of a thoroughly educated mind would teach them how to use. And while thus they might enter with genuine penetration into the minds and conditions of those for whom they were working, they would also bear with them in their work the principles and aims which give height, and strength, and worth to all stages of education. I believe that even the simplest intellects might recognise and answer to the highest thought, if only it could be wisely and patiently brought to them by one who thoroughly understood both it and them. On this belief I ground my hope that the unity of the work of

education, throughout all its grades, may be more adequately realised and owned as the work itself advances; and I trust that a large part in the improvement of Secondary Education may be born by teachers coming from Oxford and Cambridge, with such antecedents and such preparation for their work as I have indicated. In many places, their teaching might fall in with, and be re-inforced by the extension of university teaching; and, with or without this re-inforcement, it would tend to increase and encourage the important class of whom I have tried to speak in the former part of this letter; the class from whom such teachers would themselves have come; the class of poor students, who are thoroughly able to appreciate, and realise, and take into their own minds and characters the best gifts that Oxford and Cambridge have to offer.

I am, &c.

FRANCIS PAGET.

The Hon. William N. Bruce. Dean of Christ Church.

REV. R. W. M. POPE, D.D.

Students' Delegacy,
High Street, Oxford,
July 28th, 1894.

SIR,

THE Commissioners will prefer that I should speak specially as to the non-collegiate students of Oxford, with whom my work has been concerned for the past seven years. I propose therefore to treat briefly Questions 3 (*a*), 3 (*b*), 2, 4 and 5, and to deal at length with Question 6.

QUESTION 3 (*a*).—GENERAL CORRELATION.

Greek

The relation of Greek to university examinations is one that must be faced. It is urged that it is too great a hindrance in the way of honours for those whose studies are not purely classical. Personally, I should much regret its absence, though I need not trouble the Commission with my reasons. But even though I regret the lowering of what I may call from the university point of view the internal ideal of the degree, I am bound to admit that the time appears to have come when external needs require the sacrifice of Greek. It seems to me to be the duty of the university to recognise and to move with the requirements of the times, and on this principle I must reluctantly confess that, so far as honours are concerned, the obligation of Greek should cease to be essential.

I do not, however, extend this to the pass degree. In the pass examinations, Greek need not necessarily be offered by a man after his first year. No doubt it is true that of his own choice a candidate will take Greek among the subjects of his final schools, but he need not do so unless he wishes. In my judgment it would be a mistake to diminish the amount of

Greek which is at present demanded, and which forms a most valuable element of education in the pass course.

Pass degree.

And here let me say one word in defence of the pass degree. It has been the fashion to disparage it in Oxford, but some of its detractors have but little acquaintance with the mental position and needs of the men whom it concerns. I should be most willing to grant that a university of honour students only would fulfil a much higher conception, but it must be recollected that there is a large class of men to whom the university is of real service, but who are not naturally adapted for higher studies. It is more advantageous to them to have an accurate training in a fairly limited field than to engage in a despairing effort after a smattering of wider knowledge. The programme of the pass degree is not a showy one, but there is a good deal of reality about it, and a very respectable standard, as some of those who have come to us from honour courses at other universities have had occasion to admit. If a man is unwilling to take classics in his final school, he can take French or German, or both, with the addition of some history or natural science.

Modern languages.

I should be glad if it were better known in secondary schools that there is considerable provision for the study of modern languages in Oxford. The advantages of the instruction of the teachers in connection with the Taylor Institution, and the excellence of its foreign library, ought to be appreciated. More thorough training in French and German at schools would be productive of good results in subsequent study here. It is to be hoped that the certificates for proficiency in modern languages, recently established by the Taylor curators, may prove an effective stimulus in this direction.

Question 3 (*b*) 2.—Girls.

High schools.

In this connexion I should like to say a few words with reference to the work done by the Girls' Public Day Schools Company. As under the Joint Board I have had the pleasure for many years of examining these schools, and have visited the greater number of them twice at least, from Carlisle to Brighton, and from Swansea to Norwich, I have great pleasure in bearing my unhesitating testimony to the excellent work which they have already accomplished, and which they are carrying on with so much success. These high schools have been of incalculable value in the education of girls. It is not too much to say that they and some other institutions working on similar lines have brought about a new era in female education. I should not speak with so much confidence had I not examined thousands of these girls, and had the most favourable opportunities of judging closely of their discipline and work.

The teaching is thorough and accurate, and the youngest and oldest girls have the benefit of equal care. The head mistresses exercise most judicious supervision. As examiner I have listened to many lessons delivered by assistant teachers at short notice at my own request, in such a subject as botany for

example, and I have been much struck by the clearness of method employed, and the great interest evoked in the pupils.

I know of no better preparation for girls for the higher work of the universities than the training given in these schools, and it is very satisfactory to observe that after their university life is over, a large number of old pupils themselves become high-school mistresses, and find scope for their energies in what is practically a new profession.

Question 4.—Types of Teachers.

It may be best for me to be as brief as possible, and to limit my statements to the different kinds of teachers whom we send out from the non-collegiate body, or to inferences which have been gathered from correspondence on their behalf.

Non-collegiate teachers.

A large proportion of our men engage in teaching, and of these the majority obtain masterships in the smaller or less important schools. Generally speaking, they are not qualified to undertake advanced Latin and Greek, for it is only under the most exceptional circumstances that non-collegiate students can hope for high classical honours. I should say that, as a rule, they teach work very much corresponding to what is done from the fourth form downwards in the larger schools. They do not seem to have much difficulty in obtaining appointments, but the value of the posts is almost invariably small. There are, of course, exceptions. At the present time a natural science student who has taken a good class can obtain a better choice of masterships than most other graduates.

Classics and music.

A demand for a new type of teacher appears to me to be beginning. If a man combines a classical education with a good knowledge of music, not only in theory but in practice, he is almost certain to obtain a satisfactory position. The interest in music, which has recently been so largely developed throughout the country, will probably continue to increase, and if that is the case, there will be a growing demand for this type of master. There need be no difficulty in supplying the want. Musical instruction in the university and musical interest on the part of its members have reached a much higher level than that which they occupied some years ago.

I should like to be allowed to add that where the university has had the opportunity of dealing with those who have already entered on the teaching profession, it has done much to improve the type of teacher. No one can help being struck by the small amount of knowledge shown by not a few of those who come to Oxford after teaching for some years in schools. How they were ever accepted as teachors, and what they could possibly have taught, are problems difficult to solve. These men owe much to the university for the improvement they receive, and so also do the secondary schools in which they resume their work under widely altered conditions.

QUESTION 5.—TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

Delegacy.

I am persuaded that this is one of the duties which it is very desirable that the universities should fulfil. At Oxford the arrangements would naturally be entrusted to a delegacy. Two years ago the university established a committee for its day training college, and the members of this committee bear the official title of "Delegates for the Training of Teachers." By them, no doubt, or by them with the addition of others, the work might be carried out. It is obvious that there would be three requirements: (1) Lectures; (2) Practising Schools; (3) Examinations.

Lectures.

(1.) With regard to lectures they should be given by men who have been, or are, teachers of experience, or who possess special qualifications. The writer has had the misfortune to hear one or two lectures on the art of teaching delivered to elementary schoolmasters, and his recollection is that they consisted of a mass of commonplaces expressed in very elaborate language. But the delegates may be safely trusted to guard against this danger.

Practising schools.

(2.) It might be possible to employ for practising purposes the secondary schools that already exist in or near Oxford. Failing these, or in event of these being insufficient, it would be necessary to establish relations of this kind with a certain number of picked schools throughout the country. The length of time required for this practical portion of the training would be an important matter for the delegates to determine. In elementary schools Oxford is well provided, and it is worthy of consideration whether a short experience in an elementary school might not be found to be of considerable value. Of course there is in many ways a wide difference between these schools and those of a secondary character, both as regards method and matter of teaching, but attendance at a certain number of lessons delivered by an elementary master of acknowledged skill could hardly fail to be productive of useful results.

Examinations.

(3.) Examinations both in theory and practice should be held by the Delegacy. The certificates given should vary with the degree of excellence attained. There would be, of course, the minimum of the pass standard which everyone must reach, and those attaining higher levels should receive a mark of distinction, or, if thought expedient, be placed in a kind of class list. The stimulus provided in this way, and the undoubted influence that a high certificate would have on a future career, would prove exceedingly beneficial.

One suggestion I should most respectfully submit, and that is that as far as possible the university should be allowed to have a free hand in the matter. The work will be done more rapidly and in a more effectual manner if it is allowed to choose its own methods and make its own arrangements.

Question 6.—Non-Collegiate Students.

In answering this question it will be most convenient for me to submit to the Commission an account of the non-collegiate system as it now exists. I trust I may be excused if I enter somewhat minutely into details, as I desire to give the fullest information with reference to our arrangements.

Management. The management is entrusted to a Delegacy composed of the Vice-Chancellor, the two Proctors, the Censor, the Controller of Lodging Houses, the Very Rev. Dr. Kitchin (late Censor), and six members of Convocation.

Of these the Censor exercises general supervision over the discipline and instruction of the students. All students reading for honours in any school are desired to apply to him for direction and advice.

With the Censor are associated tutors, who give all instruction required.

Buildings. The buildings of the Delegacy are situated in the High Street, and adjoin the new schools. They were erected by the university in the year 1888 at a cost of over 7,000*l.*, and contain library, lecture rooms, office, reading room, &c. The lectures for the different pass schools are delivered in these buildings, and also, by kind permission of the curators, in a portion of the new schools. For honour lectures students attend here, and at the various college lecture-rooms, or according to the notices of the university professors.

The office of the Delegacy is open both in term and in vacation.

Residence and discipline. As in colleges, students are required to reside during the eight weeks of each term. They must do so in licensed lodgings, unless they obtain special leave to live elsewhere on the ground of mature age, or to be under the roof of parents or guardians. A gate bill is furnished to the Censor, and a permanent record kept of the times at which such lodgings are entered after 10 p.m. Absence from rooms during the night would be at once reported.

Each student must register himself at the office immediately upon his arrival, and must call at the end of each term to obtain leave to go down. All are required to be present at a meeting held by the Censor at the beginning of term. They must also furnish him with a list of the lectures arranged for them to attend. With a view to ensure regularity on the part of those who are not reading for honours, the Censor and pass tutors meet once a week and review the conduct and position of every such student. No student, whether for pass or honours, is allowed to retain his name on the books unless he attends lectures, or has been excused for exceptional reasons. A further check is imposed by the fact that no name can be entered for any examination except through the Censor.

Tuition. On matriculation each student is placed under the care of one of the tutors, who gives him advice as to his studies and supervision. Arrangements are made by the Delegacy for supplying

all instruction required both for the pass and for the honour schools.

Each student is required to pay a fee of two guineas per term to the Delegacy for tuition so long as he is in residence and reading for any examination. This covers all necessary payments both for individual direction and for lectures, except in the case of students reading for natural science at the university museum, where additional payment is required.

In the case of passmen there is a comprehensive system of lectures conducted by the Censor and two tutors. Candidates for honours attend the lectures of the professors and readers, and are under the charge of thirteen tutors, each student being assigned by the Censor to a special tutor, who not only advises him as to his reading, but looks over papers, &c., with him once a week in a personal interview, furnishing the Censor from time to time with information as to his diligence and progress. Owing to the kindness of college tutors and lecturers, they are enabled to attend the lectures given at the colleges in the subjects of the various honour schools. This fact must be most gratefully acknowledged, as without such help it would be entirely impossible to make adequate provision for honour instruction. The number of those who are engaged in the study of honour subjects is at present slightly over forty per cent.

In connexion with the subject of teaching, it should be mentioned that the library is kept up to date, so far as means will allow, and contains some thousands of volumes, which are largely borrowed by students for their work in vacation as well as in term time.

Age of students.

The bulk of the students are about the same age as those in colleges, but there is a good deal of variation. The youngest I have ever admitted has been 15, the oldest 60. School has frequently been left at an early age, and consequently there has often been an interval of several years between school life and admission to the university. Special students, of whom I shall speak presently, are nearly always older than those who are engaged in the ordinary courses.

Poverty.

With the exception of the majority of these, and of the men advanced in years, the students as a rule are poor. They are drawn from all classes, that is a point of great importance. Many are the sons of small shop-keepers, some of artisans, and I can even mention an instance of the son of an agricultural labourer. The great majority, however, are the sons of professional men whose means are limited. It ought to be mentioned that some of our students are engaged in other work in Oxford. For example, we always have some elementary teachers, who combine their school work with university studies.

Educational origin.

For obvious reasons we seldom receive students from the great public schools. Our men are drawn chiefly from grammar schools and private schools. Many owe their training to private tuition, while some have had to do the best they could for themselves, with but little external assistance. The result of this is

that comparatively few students are able to compete with success for classical honours; they are obliged to choose subjects in the final schools where they can begin their reading from a standpoint more on a level with other men. It should be noted that we draw to a certain extent from other universities, and also that elementary schools furnish us with some of our members. In the case of the Queen's scholars their classical attainments fall very far below the responsions standard.

Number. We usually have rather more than 200 undergraduates in residence. Among these I should mention that we have on our books a certain number of students from Mansfield and Manchester Colleges. As these institutions are not part of the university, the members are admitted to our body in order to attend university lectures, and obtain university privileges. The Day Training College, founded two years ago, furnishes us also with a few students. It would not be difficult to enlarge our list if men were allowed to come and go for short periods, removing and replacing their names. But as this is not really compatible with *bonâ fide* residence and study for the degree, such applications are not favourably entertained. The same end could be fullfilled if we were to take men who are sent away from colleges for failing in their schools, but for many years it has been the invariable practice to admit no such persons. Indeed we receive hardly any from colleges, for the last seven years the average is less than three per annum, and these are very special cases, for the most part depending upon pecuniary reasons.

Special students. This is a most important side of the non-collegiate work, and one for which it has exceptional qualifications. The exact position is as follows:—

Persons who do not intend to pass through the arts course, but desire to enter the university with a view to some special study, are excused the ordinary entrance examination, provided they produce sufficient evidence of their ability to prosecute their studies with advantage. In other words, the delegates admit, without examination, students in any branch of study who do not desire to take a degree, but who can show evidence of fitness for their special subject.

Such persons take no university examinations. They are able to devote themselves exclusively to their own pursuits without touching other subjects, or being delayed by going back to prepare again elementary details, which, though necessary as preliminary steps for a degree, form irksome hindrances to advanced students. They can have the advantage of being assigned to tutors by paying the tuition fee of two guineas a term; but, as a rule, they prefer to choose their own lectures throughout the university with the advice of the Censor, so far as he is able to help them. It need hardly be said that his work must sometimes consist in introducing them to the persons best qualified to afford them the information they require. It should be borne in mind (as has been said) that they are older men than

others, and are here on their own responsibility. It will naturally be gathered that many of them have already graduated at other universities. It need, perhaps, hardly be stated that in such cases the discipline which applies to a student of eighteen or nineteen is neither suitable nor in any danger of being enforced. The field from which these men are drawn is by no means limited to the United Kingdom. Many come from the Colonies and the United States; some come from India. As yet the largest number have been brought here by theology, but other subjects have also proved attractive. The length of time spent at the university varies from one term to two or three years. Some come for the advantage of libraries, and to obtain all the knowledge they can on matters in which they are interested, others to listen to particular teachers, and to acquaint themselves with the methods employed by them in their lectures. Twenty-six students matriculated for the sake of these privileges last year, while thirty-five removed their names after fulfilling their intentions, and with a most grateful appreciation of the advantages they had enjoyed.

Expense.

With reference to expense the following figures may be received as accurate:—

The fees and dues to be paid before matriculation are:—

	£	s.	d.
1. Matriculation fee to the university - -	2	10	0
2. Entrance fee to the Delegacy - -	2	10	0
3. Caution money (returned on removal of name)	2	0	0
4. Entrance fee to library - - - -	0	10	0
5. Dues to the end of the first quarter - -	1	11	0
Total - - -	£9	1	0

The expenses of board and lodging for the eight weeks of term will vary according to the tastes and habits of individuals. With care and economy a sum of 30s. per week will suffice. In some cases the average weekly expenditure has been less, but it would not be prudent for anyone to calculate on living for a smaller sum, unless he has already found by experience that he can reduce his expenses below this limit.

The yearly expenses of living for three terms (Easter and Trinity terms being counted together as one) may be reckoned as follows:—

	£	s.	d.
Board and lodging for 24 weeks at 30s. a week	36	0	0
University and Delegacy Dues - - -	6	0	6
Examination fees (on the average) - - -	2	2	0
Tuition - - - - - - -	6	6	0
Total - - -	£50	8	6

This estimate does not include travelling, books, clothes, incidental expenses, or cost of living in vacations.

Exhibitions.

I must not omit to mention the assistance which is given in the way of exhibitions. It should be remembered, however, apart from these, that the university makes a grant of 1,000*l.* a year towards the maintenance of the system, and that without this it would be impossible to receive any students at the present charges. The following are the exhibitions actually offered.

(1.) One Shute Scholarship of 50*l.* per annum, tenable for two years, and renewable for a like period by resolution of the delegates. Also one or more exhibitions, to be awarded from time to time as the balance of the Shute scholarship and exhibition fund shall permit. This cannot exceed 25*l.* in any one year.

(2.) Two Grocers' Exhibitions of the value of 25*l.* each, tenable for three years, or till the B.A. degree. These are awarded from time to time by competition in any subjects selected by the delegates.

(3.) Three Clothworkers' Exhibitions for a knowledge of Natural Science, of 52*l.* 10*s.* a year, tenable for three years, either at Oxford or at Cambridge. One exhibition is awarded yearly at the examination held in July by the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board.

(4.) Three Clothworkers' Exhibitions of 30*l.* a year, tenable for three years from matriculation, or until the B.A. degree, one of which is given in the Michaelmas Term in each year to a student who is reading for honours. The selection is left to the Censor.

(5.) Four Leathersellers' Exhibitions of 25*l.* a year, tenable for four years from matriculation. Examination necessary.

(6.) Four exhibitions of 50*l.* a year, open to senior candidates in the Oxford Local Examinations, tenable for two years, and renewable for a like period by resolution of the delegates.

(7.) The librarianship to the Delegacy, 30*l.* a year, is also given by the delegates on the nomination of the Censor to some one of the students who is reading for honours in one of the final schools.

The delegates hope to be able occasionally to make small grants in aid of tuition to deserving students reading for honours who are in need of assistance at the university. The funds at their disposal for this purpose are small, coming, like those of the Local Exhibitions (6.) out of money they have been able to save. A grant of 30*l.* a year is at present enjoyed by a student who is reading for honours in physiology.

Some of our men derive help from other sources. The Ordination Candidates' Exhibition Fund, the Corporation of the Sons of the Clergy, and the Cholmondeley Charity render importance and assistance in many cases. The students who hold exhibitions from schools are comparatively few.

Amusements.

One of the objections sometimes brought against the non-collegiate life is that it is lonely. It need not be so unless men

choose. Every effort is made to give men opportunities of being together, and many gladly embrace them. There is a common room in the building which is specially assigned to the undergraduates for their own use and management.

All students are recommended to join the amalgamated clubs, (boating, cricket, football, rifle corps, lawn tennis, debating, musical), which have been organised on a common basis and are maintained by subscription These clubs are valuable means of promoting common feeling, and afford facilities for healthy amusement and social intercourse. The subscription is 12*s.* 6*d.* per term, with an entrance fee of 10*s.* Subscribers of 12*s.* 6*d.* become members of all the clubs.

The present Censor is the treasurer, and has the strongest conviction as to the useful purpose which these clubs fulfil. It is a pity to be obliged to add that not much more than 50 per cent. of the students are subscribers.

History. As the Delegacy completed 25 years of its existence in 1893, a brief review of its history is submitted to the Commission.

During that period 2,279 persons became non-collegiate students, while 508 and 238 proceeded to the degrees of B.A. and M.A. respectively. The other degrees conferred were Mus. Bac. 6, Mus. Doc. 2, B.C.L. 4, B.M. 5, B.D. 1.

The following is a tabular statement of honours obtained by students:—

Class.	Second Public Examination.							First Public Examination.		B.C.L. Examination.
	Literæ Humaniores.	Mathematics.	Jurisprudence.	Modern History.*	Theology.	Natural Science.	Oriental Studies.	Classics.	Mathematics.	
First - -	—	—	1	2	11	2	1	2	1	1
Second - -	4	1	1	11	23	8	2	10	5	1
Third - -	9	1	8	24	36	8	—	39	7	1
Fourth - -	9	2	4	13	17	2	—	—	—	—

University Scholarships.†
Denyer and Johnson (3).
Pusey and Ellerton (3).
Junior Kennicott.
Davis Chinese (4).
Chinese.
Taylorian (2).

University Exhibitions.
Davis Chinese (2).
Taylorian (2).

University Prizes.
Arnold Essay.
English Essay.
Ellerton Essay.
Syriac Version.
Senior LXX.
Junior LXX (3).
Junior Greek Testament.

Twenty-four scholarships and 55 exhibitions were gained at different colleges and halls, and one student was elected to a fellowship.

* Also one Second Class in the School of Law and Modern History.
† The figures in brackets denote the number of occasions on which the distinction has been gained.

It will be observed that the number of persons admitted to the degree of B.A. (508) is small in proportion to the total number of non-collegiate students (2,279). This comparative fewness is to some extent explained by the statement that 1,045 students migrated to colleges and halls, and also that from time to time persons were admitted for work at special subjects who never intended to take a degree. With reference to migration, it must be admitted that it has been a check to any large numerical development. I am glad to be able to state that with the improvements which the delegates have been enabled by the university to make in the tuition and position of the students, applications for leave of migration have become much fewer during recent years. Nevertheless it may naturally be asked—are not figures such as these a proof that the non-collegiate system has failed to justify its existence? The answer is in the negative. Even in the case of those who have left us our system has done them valuable service. Many could never have entered the university without its aid, and through it many have found it possible to spend part of their time at Oxford at a rate of expenditure which would have been otherwise out of the question. In their case also the 25 years have had good results to show, as is clearly evidenced by the following list of honours obtained by former students who were originally under the charge of the delegates for varying periods:—

Class.	Second Public Examination.							First Public Examination.		B.C.L. Examination.
	Literæ Humaniores.	Mathematics.	Jurisprudence.	Modern History.*	Theology.	Natural Science.	Oriental Studies	Classics.	Mathematics.	
First - -	6	3	2	4	10	14	—	5	4	1
Second - -	15	4	5	22	39	14	—	23	1	—
Third - -	9	2	7	27	41	7	1	18	4	3
Fourth - -	6	3	7	14	38	6	—	—	—	—

* Also one First Class in the School of Law and Modern History.

To this list should be added the following university scholarships:—the Pusey and Ellerton, Boden Sanskrit, and Burdett-Coutts. Three former students were elected to fellowships.

What has been said is sufficient to show that the university has done much for its poorest students, and has endeavoured to encourage the development of Secondary Education throughout the country so far as they are concerned. Notwithstanding this, while it is something to know that so many persons have already received their education by means of the non-collegiate system, I am obliged to acknowledge that I am not satisfied

Past and future.

with our numbers, and desire to see them largely augmented. It is indeed a matter for regret that the increased interest in education throughout the country has not borne larger fruit as regards ourselves. I do not think that the fault (if there be one) is to be attributed to this Delegacy. What is true of us is true of the whole university. So far as numbers go, though the growth of the university within the last 25 years has been large, I should not like to assert that it has been quite in the proportion that might not unreasonably have been expected. In both cases the explanation is to be traced to external causes. Nevertheless the non-collegiate system has never been in a more promising condition that it is at present. It is encouraging to note that according to published returns more persons matriculated with us last October term than at any other place belonging to the two older universities, with the single exception of the great foundation of Trinity College, Cambridge. Something, however, seems to be wanting. Within the last three years seven of the exhibitions already mentioned have been established, but though the majority of these are open to external competitors, the number of such candidates has been exceedingly limited. This in itself is disappointing, and yet I look forward with hope to a considerable development of the non-collegiate body in the future. If the arrangements of Secondary Education become such as to send increased numbers of students to the universities, the non-collegiate body must of necessity form the home of the poorer men. What we require is that more shall be known about our system. The idea is far too prevalent that a non-collegiate undergraduate is an isolated being, for whom nobody cares, and who is left to sink or swim according to his good or evil fortune. Even in Oxford not so much is known as one could wish as to the organisation of our tuition and the excellent opportunities afforded both to pass and honour students. Outside the university the knowledge is still less. The popular and mistaken idea that Oxford is necessarily expensive, and that amusement comes first and study afterwards, renders it difficult for the fact to be accepted that students can work hard and live cheaply. We have to contend not only against want of knowledge on the part of some, but prejudice on the part of others. I am glad that there is reason to think that these unfavourable opinions are being diminished. I believe that with the changing conditions of the time the non-Collegiate system will be the means of bringing to the university poor and promising pupils from many of the secondary schools, where at present such an idea is never entertained. In one branch of education especially it is to be hoped there may be a change. It has long been a matter of surprise to me why more natural science students are not attracted to our ranks. One reason no doubt is that the course is comparatively expensive. It costs a science student at least 10*l.* a year more than it costs a student in arts. The practical work of the laboratory involves the higher charge. In medicine, again, it is greatly to be

regretted that our students are so few. The university makes ample provision, and one would have thought that a fair number of medical students might have been found among our members. I am informed that fees and expenses will compare very favourably with the charges at other institutions which are not connected with Oxford. I do not wish to do more than call attention to the subject of medicine, but I do desire to lay stress upon the statement that in the non-collegiate body poor students in every branch of natural science may obtain a share in the many advantages which Oxford affords. In this connexion it may be suggested that the special student system may very possibly be of value. Where the time to read for a degree is not at a man's disposal, or where other impediments lie in the way, it may be of great service to him to be enabled to employ a more limited period for his special scientific work.

Speaking generally, I think there is very little doubt that our special students are destined to play an important part in the future of the university. In them will be found the best way of meeting the demand for "post-graduate" study. It should be clearly understood that little change, if any, is required in the teaching of the university to meet this want. There is a common impression that extraordinary provision must be made in the way of new courses of lectures to satisfy the requirements of post-graduate students, but my own experience is that those already existing are as a rule entirely sufficient. The weak point hitherto has been the absence of teaching in the important department of English, and I am glad to welcome the foundation of the new honour school as the best method of supply this need.

Two practical suggestions occur to me which, if carried out, would tend much to our development:— Suggestions.

(1.) That small exhibitions, say of 30*l.* or 40*l.* a year, should be established in secondary schools on condition that the holders proceed to the university. It is not necessary that the exhibitions should be large; indeed, we should gain more members if the endowments were small.

(2.) That some of the exhibitions granted by county councils should be utilised to enable poor men to come to the university. At present only two of our students are assisted in this way. The grants might be devoted to enable men to take a degree in natural science, or, as that may not always be possible, to employ the year or two years, for which the grants are made, in some department of science as special students.

I have, &c.

RICHARD W. M. POPE,
Censor of non-collegiate students.

The Secretary,
Royal Commission on Secondary Education.

MR. G. W. PROTHERO.

College scholarships and exhibitions.

1.—(*a.*) This question could probably be better answered by schoolmasters, than by persons in my position; but, so far as I have had means of judging, I should say that examinations for scholarships and exhibitions at the universities exercise considerable effect on the course of study pursued at schools which prepare boys for the universities. The subjects studied at such schools are necessarily selected to a large extent to meet the requirements of the college examinations; the practical limitation of most of these examinations to classics, mathematics, and natural science prevents the schools from paying much attention to other subjects, and the last-named subject could not have taken the position which it has won in many schools, had not the universities, especially Cambridge, encouraged it, and had not the colleges followed the central body by admitting it into their examinations. The abolition of various restrictions in the college examinations, and the improvement in the method and system pursued, seem to have increased competition, and thus to have improved and systematised the teaching of the schools. On the other hand, the tendency to specialisation now prevailing in the universities, again especially at Cambridge, has, it appears to me, produced a deleterious effect upon the schools by leading to premature specialisation in the teaching of boys, while the intensity of the competition for scholarships, &c., appears to have led, in some schools at least, to a forcing system, aiming directly at success in examinations, which has to some extent diverted teaching from its proper objects.

Restrictions on eligibility.

1.—(*b.*) Restrictions on eligibility appear to me to be desirable, to a certain extent, in the interest of poor students. There can be no doubt that large money prizes, in the way of scholarships and exhibitions, are frequently awarded to students who have no need, or comparatively little need, of pecuniary assistance, and who, from this very cause, have had special advantages in preparing for the competition. If, however, the sons of well-to-do parents were excluded altogether, a lowering of the standard, which might act detrimentally on the general character of school teaching, would inevitably result. The best way of meeting this difficulty seems to be the institution of honorary scholarships and exhibitions, which would confer honour and position on the best students, while leaving the emoluments free to be used where they are really wanted.

Restriction to particular areas might do some good, by holding out fairly certain hopes of success to the best students, in poor neighbourhoods, who cannot compete on equal terms with boys educated in the larger and highly-endowed schools; but great care would have to be taken so as to avoid the drawbacks which accompanied this system in former days, when the smallness of the area, or the narrowness of the class from which the candidates were drawn, reduced or destroyed competition,

and by depriving the prize of any honour, diminished its value, so that it ceased to be an incentive to good work.

University examining agencies.

2. The local examinations and the extension delegacies, &c., have not, I suppose, had much effect upon the public schools in general—I mean the older and higher class schools—and my knowledge of other schools is not sufficient to enable me to say how far they have followed the lead of the local examinations syndicate or delegacy I know that smaller schools sometimes avail themselves of university extension lectures, but only when they can be fitted into their ordinary curriculum. The age at which students begin to attend local lectures is, I suppose, generally too high for them to produce any great effect on school teaching or to modify school standards.

The Joint Board seems to have produced a certain effect on the teaching of the public schools, for though the public schools examinations are framed to meet the exigencies of the schools, and do not pretend to lead them, they must produce an effect by forcing them to follow, to a very large extent, the same model, to select the same subjects, and adopt a similar standard. These examinations, therefore, tend, on the whole, to destroy individuality in the schools, to hamper the headmaster's initiative, to discourage experiment, and to throw obstacles in the way of change. They also tend, while raising the *general* standard of attainment in a school, to discourage individual excellence, since it must be the aim of many masters to pass as many of their pupils as possible, and therefore to neglect the best boys, who can take care of themselves, in the interest of the rank and file. On the other hand, they probably have raised the standard of the smaller schools by placing them in competition with the larger.

3. I have no answer to give to this question.

Provision of secondary teachers by the university.

4. I should think that assistant masters in the public schools—the larger ones at least—are almost exclusively university men, and the competition for educational employment is now so keen among university graduates that I believe the proportion of university men employed, even in the poorer class of schools, is largely on the increase.

Training of teachers.

5. I think the universities should do more than they do at present in the actual training of teachers in the work of teaching; but, on the one hand, the difficulty of giving practical training is very great, and on the other the universities can hardly be expected to do much in this way till there is more demand for trained teachers on the part of the larger schools, which at present seem to regard teaching as capable only of being learnt by rough experience and the light of nature.

Non-collegiate system.

6. I think that the non-collegiate system has had some effect on Secondary Education, by inducing a certain number of poor students to study with a view to university education who would not otherwise have done so. But the effect cannot, I think, have been very large hitherto, so far, at least, as Cambridge is concerned; nor is it likely to have much while the colleges have so much more to offer both in the way of

endowments and social advantages, and in public estimation, as is the case at present. I think the solution is probably rather to be found in a modification of the collegiate system, in the reduction of college expenses, and in the establishment of cheaper colleges and hostels, than in the extension of the non-collegiate system in its pure form.

7. I have no answer to give to this.

(Signed) G. W. PROTHERO,
Formerly Tutor and Lecturer of
King's College, Cambridge.

MR. THOMAS RALEIGH.

All Souls College, Oxford,
4th May 1894.

SIR,

THE faculty of law, with which I have been connected since 1884, is concerned chiefly with the preparation of candidates for the honour school of jurisprudence. Some of the subjects to which you call my attention are beyond the scope of our special work. In answering your inquiries I give my opinion as an individual teacher, not as representing our faculty board.

College scholarships and exhibitions.

1. (*b.*) As a general rule I think it is not desirable to impose restrictions in the interest of poor students. The effect of such restrictions is to lower the standard of the examination, and also to lower the position of the scholar and exhibitioner among his fellow students. It is right that a college should give special assistance to those who cannot come to the university without it; such assistance is given in most Oxford colleges. But scholarships and exhibitions are prizes, and should be open to general competition.

I do not think restrictions should be imposed in the interest of special areas. Scholarships limited to particular schools and counties bring in a class of men who would not gain scholarships open to general competition, and these men seldom rise to the level of the other scholars among whom they find themselves.

University examining agencies.

2. So far as my observation goes, the results of our system of local examinations have been wholly good. As to our extension delegacy I have often thought that its work might well be supplemented by arrangements for giving instruction of a more elementary and systematic nature than can be given in a short course of lectures. This point will no doubt be considered by the Commission in connexion with continuation schools, evening classes, &c.

Correlation of university and Secondary Education.

3. The relation between the universities and secondary schools are at present personal rather than constitutional; I think most university men are content that it should be so. They have their work, and we have ours; the help which they give us or we give them can hardly be reduced to rule and system. We might do more for poor students, but there are two difficulties in the way. In the first place, competition is

necessary to secure firmness and efficiency in examinations, and in competitive examinations the rich man's son has certain advantages, if he is able and willing to use them. In the second place, the standard of living at Oxford is high, perhaps too high, and a poor man who is brought here does not get all the good of university life unless he can do much as other undergraduates do.

As for girls, I would not place the university in "correlation" with any arrangement made for their benefit. I hold that the higher education of women ought to be worked out by women, and on independent lines. Some harm has been done, and more may be done, by assuming that women must follow the same courses of study, and submit to the same examination tests, as the average well-educated young man. Woman is not undergraduate man, but diverse.

Of "students requiring technological instruction" I am not qualified to speak.

Training of teachers.

5. It is not, in my opinion, the office of the university to train men for teaching, or for any other profession. We can teach a man certain subjects and methods, but his special training must be left to those who are engaged in the professional work which he wishes to learn. Almost any honours man will make a good teacher, if he is conscientious, and if he has the luck to fall into the hands of a good headmaster. We might, of course, have a professor of education, but I am inclined to think that lectures on educational method are most useful when delivered to teachers who have had some experience. Men who have not yet begun to teach have no conception of the difficulties to be overcome.

Non-collegiate system.

6. The non-collegiate system has justified its existence, and is entitled to support; but I do not see that it has affected, or is likely to affect, our secondary schools. If a school is good enough to produce creditable non-collegiate students, it will probably aim at producing exhibitioners of colleges.

University and the public services.

7. Close connexion with the universities has done much to maintain the high character of our Civil Service. University men pass into the upper ranks of that service; some of them take part in the work of the Civil Service Commission; the examination for Government appointments are so arranged as to enable our students to compete with a fair chance of success. I do not know that anything more can be done in this direction. It would, in my opinion, be a mistake if we were to lay ourselves out to train men specially for the public services. As with teachers, so with officials; any good Oxford man will make a civil servant, diplomatist, &c., if he has character, and if he falls into the hands of superiors who know how to train him.

I am, &c.

(Signed) THOMAS RALEIGH.

The Secretary,
Royal Commission on Secondary
Education, London.

PRINCIPAL ROBERTSON.

Question 1 *b.* (1.)—To a limited extent only.
(2.)—No.

Provision of secondary teachers by universities.

4. To a very considerable extent. But a distinction should be noted between—

(*a.*) A relatively large number of men who take masterships in public, grammar, or other secondary schools for a year or two only, between taking their degree and some other calling in life.

(*b.*) The minority, who make teaching their life's profession.

With regard to (*a*), the somewhat low standard of qualification for masterships in most secondary schools (other than the best public schools) makes this an easy temporary opening for young graduates, especially if they are athletic.

As to (*b*), the question merges in *question No.* 5.

Training of teachers.

5. My impression is that the universities, as such, can do best work by confining themselves to the *general* preparation involved in a liberal education, such as the possession of a degree in arts is supposed to imply.

The *special* training (in "pedagogic" method, &c.) cannot be easily given by a university, as far as Secondary Education is concerned. It is generally got by a few years' (or terms') trial, and perhaps failure, in actual school work. The best men come out after this, and those unfitted by nature and character are weeded out by natural selection. Whether this process can be to any extent anticipated by a *post-graduate* pedagogic course is a question of importance as to which I scarcely venture to give an opinion.

(Signed) A. ROBERTSON,
Principal of Bishop Hatfield's Hall,
May 9th, 1894. Durham.

MISS ROGERS.

3. The correlation of the arrangements of Secondary Education with those of the Universities.

(b.)—*Girls.*

Correlation of university and Secondary Education (girls).

My experience on this point is mainly derived from the supervision of the studies and the tuition of 48 Oxford women students in honour classics. I have also taught Latin to the sixth form in a high school for one year, and some years ago I twice examined the schools of the girls Public Day School Company in Latin.

Of my 48 students, six only were able to begin the regular course of work immediately upon coming up, and three only have been able to take their examination in the same term as the men who came up with them. This was due to insufficient preparation, some of them not knowing enough classics to pass the first university examination. The six I have mentioned had

had special preparation at school, home, or a local college. So far as I can judge, although the average *Latin* work is higher than it was when I examined the Girls' Public Day Schools, we do not get girls better prepared in *advanced* work. They are not fit for university teaching even in Latin, and they know very little Greek. There are some advantages in this. The work is fresher than if a student had worked at classics for many years, and there is nothing to unlearn. We have had satisfactory results even when the preparation given at school has been very insufficient, but a girl wastes time and money if she comes to Oxford to learn accidence, and the honour work cannot be done thoroughly. Teachers and pupils alike feel the want of thoroughness.

It is not possible to ignore classics in girls' education while the subject holds the place it does in boys' schools and at the universities; girls will not leave them alone. They feel that if they are to get the full good out of their university they must study the subjects in which men win most credit, and in which the best teaching is to be procured. Those who direct their studies cannot conscientiously make them the object of educational experiments beyond a certain limit, nor will the general public think much of a course of work which is followed mainly or entirely by women. We may therefore always expect to have a fair proportion of our students reading classics.

This question is also intimately connected with that of the degree. The claim of women students to the degree is strong in proportion as they are qualified in the same way as men. So long as classics are compulsory at Oxford and Cambridge women who do not take them put themselves at a disadvantage and diminish their chance of being admitted to the B.A. I do not consider the educational value of a small amount of Greek to be great, and I think that the importance of Latin may be over-estimated; but if the B.A. cannot be got without classics, we must accept classics, for we cannot acquiesce permanently in the withholding of the degree. I should be glad to see such changes made in the degree course as would bring it into better relation with the Secondary Education of girls; but I cannot suppose that Oxford is as yet prepared to take women into consideration in prescribing a curriculum for its undergraduates. At present, therefore, as far as classics are concerned, women students who come up with the ordinary school preparation are at a great disadvantage. The schools teach a comparatively small amount of Latin and very little Greek.

I do not, however, desire to see girls' schools "classicized," even if I thought it feasible. The results of the classical training of boys are not altogether satisfactory, and classics do not form so essential a part of education that the training required for university students should be compulsory on all girls. I would, however, suggest the following points for consideration:—

(1.) Specialisation should be possible in the last two years of a girl's school course, and definite preparation for the

university be begun. Future university students should then receive special instruction and be encouraged to do more work alone. All should take Latin and Greek sufficient for the first university examination. Classical girls should begin elementary honour work.

(2.) The more advanced teaching should be under the care of a really competent classical scholar. Mistresses are often set to teach Latin, even in the higher forms, who have very little knowledge of the language, and who are therefore not qualified to prepare for university work. In some schools I know that special outside teaching is provided, and so the regular staff is not unduly taxed.

(3.) There should be more communication maintained between the mistresses of schools and women university teachers. The former, if they are not university women, are often ignorant of the requirements of the universities, and the latter have little opportunity of studying the organisation of school work. More women should be appointed as examiners in girls' schools, for it is with the women lecturers and tutors that the main direction of a girl's university work rests. At present the relations are mainly informal and by no means adequate.

(4.) Girls should not be sent up to the university overworked. All their energies are needed if they are not to suffer from the strain of the university course. It is most unfair to a girl to send her up overtired; and in many cases it would no doubt be better if the holders of scholarships were allowed to defer coming into residence for a year.

(Signed) A. M. A. H. Rogers,
Tutor in Classics to the Association for the Education of Women in Oxford.

The Secretary, Royal Commission on
Secondary Education,
June 27th, 1894.

REV. EDWARD F. SAMPSON.

Scholarships and Exhibitions.

I shall, I think, best explain my views about college scholarships if I begin by stating the reforms we should ultimately have in view in dealing with them. Scholarships are still more or less sought after rather as money prizes than for the sake of the gown or the intellectual distinction they confer. Things are in this respect better, I believe, than they were; but it is still

true that a scholar is often looked upon by his fellow undergraduates as a man who is paid to work, and intellectual excellence tends to be in consequence lightly regarded. The scholars of a college should be the intellectual *élite* of the college; the foundations should continue to be, as they are at present, open to all; neither wealth nor poverty should deprive a man of the honour of a scholar's gown. Each college should maintain a certain number of scholars; the number should not be so great as to cheapen the honour of election; the emoluments should be only small; it is better that they should take the form of allowance as in the old days than be paid directly in money. Room-rent is not a good form of allowance, as a poor man naturally occupies a less highly-rented room than a rich one; but an allowance for tuition and dinner in hall free of charge would be practically the same for all. In any case, the total value of a scholarship should be small—something between 20*l.* and 40*l.* a year. The college should, then, have a large exhibition fund at its disposal, which it should use only for poor men, and which it should have complete discretion in distributing in exhibitions or bursaries. These might be given either to scholars or to commoners, as need was shown; the sum to be expended in any one year should be limited; but some power of accumulation might be allowed, so that, in a year of exceptional pressure among the men, additional money would be forthcoming. Such discretionary power involves putting a considerable trust in the governing bodies of the colleges. I believe this can now be safely done. All the statutes which have been made by the various Commissions have been drawn from the point of view that the colleges are sure to go wrong unless they are tightly tied up. This was natural enough when the first Commission came down on an unwilling university; now the only consequence is that many a forward movement is checked and hindered because of the want of elasticity in the statutes under which we act. I believe we may be safely entrusted with much wider powers than we have at present, and I see no reason why we should not be required to present each year to a Committee of the Privy Council a statement of our scholarship and exhibition expenditure; it is also possible that the power of the visitor should be much more widely used than it is at present, and in this way an additional guarantee be provided that the college administration is fair and just.

Briefly, my idea for Christ Church is this:—

(i.) Upwards of 50 scholarships, as at present, of an annual value of between 20*l.* and 40*l.*, which should be regarded primarily as intellectual distinctions, and should represent the best intellect of the house.

(ii.) A large fund at the disposal of the governing body from which exhibitions should be granted to poor men, whether scholars or commoners, who would be otherwise unable to meet the expenses of life in Christ Church.

This is what I look for. I am quite clear that it is not desirable to make any change at present. When the Secondary Education of England is laid broadly, as I hope to see it, then many cases must of necessity be made in the universities, and I should be glad if they were to be made in the direction which I have indicated here. Meanwhile, considering present opportunities of school education, scholarships and exhibitions are plentiful enough, and I think few who are qualified to gain one or the other fail to do so; consequently, many poor men are under the present system helped to their university education. It remains true, no doubt, that money is given, sometimes in considerable sums, to those who have no need for it; but it is better to endure this for the time, than to meddle with a system which is doing a great deal of good, before we see clearly the lines on which future reforms are to proceed. We cannot be clear on this point until Secondary Education as a whole has been thoroughly and effectively organised.

The restrictions on eligibility are practically of three kinds:—(i.) restriction as to age, (ii.) restriction to a particular school, (iii.) restriction as to area.

(i.) The restriction as to age is undoubtedly good; at present some scholarships have no limit of age. This is a great mistake; it makes the undergraduate career an end in itself, and not the preparation for the work of life. No doubt there are exceptional cases but they then can be met by exhibitions. At Christ Church we offer two or three such exhibitions each year with our scholarships; there is initially a poverty qualification on them, and there is no limit of age. The limit of age for scholarships is generally 19 on the day of election; many elections, however, are made something like a year before residence is begun, and the consequence is that men come up when they are nearly 20 years of age. The age at elections may well be reduced to 18, if not lower.

(ii.) It has been the fashion to condemn unhesitatingly close scholarships, *i.e.*, scholarships confined to a particular school. I think there is a change coming over our ideas in this respect. Schoolmasters begin to dislike "cramming" their boys with a view to the college scholarship examinations; a headmaster with his heart in his work prefers to train his boys as he sees to be best for them; and this he is able to do if his school is connected with one of the colleges, and he is consequently sure of scholarships by which he can pass his boys on to the university. The historical connexion between New College and Winchester, St. John's College and Merchant Taylors, and Christ Church and Westminster will, I believe, bear very close scrutiny. No doubt, like any human arrangement, this method is open to criticism, and has its weak points. It will, however, I feel sure, favourably compare with the system which has grown up under the influence of unlimited competition in which it is difficult to say whether schools or colleges or competitors play the most undignified part. Some modification must be

made in this; it is one of the ways in which education is being most completely destroyed by examination.

(iii.) I see no reason why in the new school system some arrangement of a similar prescription to the close scholarship for schools should not be made for districts or areas; though here it is a little difficult to speak. Again, it seems to me we must get our Secondary Education system; when that is soundly established, the college scholarships can be brought into relation to it.

There is, however, another point closely connected with the college scholarship system to which I must ask leave to refer, and that is school scholarships. The foundation of our great schools are too largely monopolised by the upper strata of the middle classes. There may, no doubt, be reason, as I hold there is reason here in Oxford, for allowing the foundations on such to be open to all rich and poor alike, in order that they may represent the intellectual *élite* of the schools. This is for persons more conversant with schools than I am to decide; but in this case the money value of the scholarship should be small, and the funds set free and an exhibition for the poorer scholars and members of this school provided. And here I venture to think there is little reason for delay in making some change. It is almost an outrage on common sense that large endowments should pass, as they not unfrequently do, under our present system, into the pockets of parents who are well able to pay all the expenses of their children's education.

Westminster is a school to which attention may well be directed. For some years past it has been steadily changing its character from a public school in the old sense to that of a London School. The place it should take under its changed condition has yet to be decided; but the large foundation of this school should play a very important in the educational organisation of London.

Non-Collegiate System. Poor Men at the University

I have not any intimate knowledge of the working of the non-collegiate system, but on the general question I should like to be allowed to say a word or two. It was started to enable a poorer class of men to come to Oxford, while the well-endowed colleges in the main devoted themselves to the upper and upper middle classes. No one can come to a place like Christ Church who does not directly or indirectly share in its endowments. It seems to me only an evidence of the hopelessly wrong lines on which we have been moving that a system to bring poor men to Oxford has to be organised outside the colleges. Again, I say, lay the foundation of Secondary Education wide and deep, and leave the future to work itself out. Often the reason why poor men do not come to Oxford is that they have no possible opportunity of preparation. Give every man, rich or poor, his chance—put sound educational opportunity in his way, use

endowments wisely, so that those who are worth helping and need it are helped by them, and not many years hence this country will easily supply Oxford with its 3,000 undergraduate students, all of them men with some interest in intellectual subjects. Then, as men well prepared and trained press into the university, the standard of matriculation at the colleges will rise, as it most certainly ought to do, and the whole character of the university will change. With the advent in greater numbers of a less wealthy class, life must become simpler; and as it grows simpler expenses will fall, and a university career instead of being so much a luxury for the rich will be within the reach of all who ought to come. I deliberately say "who ought to "come"—Oxford must remain the home of the few; not selected in the future as has been too often the case in the past by wealth, but selected on intellectual and academic grounds. Already as yet poor men within the colleges—in Christ Church we fortunately have special ways in which we can help them—but from what I have seen I think very often the right kind of poor men do not come. It is wholly sad to see a poor man with no special intellectual gifts or capacities struggle through to a degree, and then ask himself what he is to do. Even able men sometimes have a difficulty in finding employment, but so far as they can and do get work; the others if they have no call to clerical work find themselves hopelessly stranded; they have lost the best years of preparation for the work they might have done, and have got but little in its place; it is a great mistake to encourage such men to waste their time at the university. We should aim at teaching the teachers from the primary school upwards; all masters who can should be university men. We ought as far as possible to train all Anglican clergy and all ministers of the Nonconformist bodies; it would be a loss if law and medicine were divorced from the university. Besides these, young men of leisure and means who have real intellectual interests, and all of all ranks who have special intellectual gifts should find their place in the university. Then, as to the rest who must go earlier into the work of life, and cannot spare the time to come to us, we must go to them, and the extension colleges planted about the country must form the link between the great majority of the people and the old universities. On this subject I might say much, but it has been my happiness for many years to work side by side with Mr. Sadler. I have never known what it is to differ from him, either in regard to the work to be immediately done, or in regard to the aims and hopes that should inspire us for the future, and I can add nothing to all he can so well say on this point.

Athleticism.

I shall be glad if I may be allowed to refer to a subject of great and growing importance and difficulty, viz., athleticism. I

am the more anxious to do this because there seems at times to be an opinion abroad that the choice lies between our developing men's physical powers and activities on the one hand, and on the other leaving them with overstrung brains and feeble bodies; and in what I have said as to the necessity of raising the intellectual standard of a large section of the university, it may be thought I am encouraging the latter type of undergraduate. Nothing can be further from my thoughts than this. I believe the Education Department took a great step forward when it began to pay attention to the physical training of the children committed to its care, and I am anxious that in all new secondary schools, especially in those that are day schools, the physical training of the scholars should have its due and healthy place in the school curriculum. As matters stand in many of our schools, and at times in the universities, the place taken by athleticism is altogether out of proportion to its claims. There is, I fear, a growing tendency to choose a man as an assistant master in the first place because he is a "blue," and in the second because he can teach anything, or has any intellectual interests or enthusiasm. No doubt it is easy to exaggerate what is going on, and it is difficult to get evidence to prove our statement, but I have no hesitation in saying that the tendency is a perfectly obvious one. When the due balance and proportion is recognised between the objects men should set before themselves, athleticism often becomes an entirely healthy influence, and I have known many men whose work in life has been strengthened and enriched by the vigour and power given to it through their interest in games. But when this is not so, the worship of muscular energy tends to a very subtle materialism, more dangerous and hurtful than any theoretical teaching. It tends to a depreciation of intellectual eminence; it has grown into prominence at a time when we have to face the slackening, too often the practical disappearance, of all that we used to associate with the word "religion." I use this word in its widest fullest sense. Boys trained under these conditions, in such an atmosphere, must grow up with their mental horizon so narrowed as to be untouched by "ideas"; the ethical surroundings which in the past have done so much and moulded character are out of sight; the highest enthusiasms boys have before them are directed to physical and material perfection; the ideals that have their home in spiritual enthusiasm are beyond their ken; they will never grow into the "young men that shall dream dreams." I can only repeat that I am not an opponent of athletics. I am old enough to have watched their growth at Oxford from comparatively small beginnings, and for a long time they were almost an unmixed good. They practically put an end to the large class of "loafers" that existed in my own undergraduate days. My plea is that physical training and games should have a recognised place in education; but that, at least as far as those who teach and direct education are concerned, the sense of proportion should not be

lost, and that while the care of the body has its due and rightful place, it should not over-ride or put out to the second place the mental, spiritual, ethical, discipline and training, in virtue of their capacity for which men are higher than the brute creation.

The Object of the Extension of Education.

Probably the present educational movement will give the tone and colour to the intellectual life of the country for many generations to come. Might I plead, following in the footsteps of some of our greatest teachers and guides, that we should put clearly before ourselves what we mean by our desire for the extension of education? The enthusiasm for it, so far as it exists, seems to be rooted in the idea that it is a means of "getting on," *i.e.*, rising in the social scale, gaining wealth or personal advantage or profit. At first only few can "get on" in this sense; our aim from our point of view it may well be our chief aim) is that these should be the right few; but to the end of time the many must fail here. They will, if we are not careful, fall back discontented and hopeless. There is no doubt a healthy discontent; but the discontent manufactured in this way will be in the completest sense unhealthy, and might only too easily become in the correct sense revolutionary. It would be well if we could make people understand that the real end of education is the formation of character, and the opening of the understanding—teaching people to know how to live, and giving them interests and ideas that lie far away from selfish aims or personal aggrandisement. If we are to make education this, many things that have had but a small place hitherto must be given a prominent place. Music, for example, must be widely taught. No doubt only few are in the true sense musicians, but most people can take pleasure in it, and many could with a little sound teaching get the happiness that is given by faculties trained to understand and appreciate all that is good and true in music. Architecture, sculpture, and something of art generally should be encouraged; flowers are really within the reach of all, or they might easily become so; some living knowledge of them should be given. I say, "living" advisedly the last thing that will add grace to life is to be found in the dry bones of some scientific text-books. Children in the country should learn to know about insects, and birds, and all that belongs to country life; all children might learn something of astronomy and of the story of the heavens. And since we may with one reservation accept the statement that the highest study of man is man himself, literature—in the sounder, more liberal sense in which Oxford at its best times has understood the term—should be given a foremost place among the things in which people are led to find fun and unselfish pleasure. Side by side with them must go the inculcation of a quiet simplicity, of severe truthfulness, honesty, and agreeableness, with the fear

and love of God; then in time there may grow up generations of English people worthy of the tradition they inherit. It may be this is an ideal—but men and nations have been noble so far as they have had faith and courage to cling to ideals; I plead that in this question of education we shall get right away from the fierce and feverish race after success and gain in which the few only can prosper, while the many must be broken down and crushed, and set clearly before ourselves as the one object of all our endeavour, the welfare and happiness of the whole nation.

(Signed) EDWARD F. SAMPSON,
Student and Censor of Christ Church,
June 14th, 1894. Oxford.

MR. A. SIDGWICK.

In the subjoined reply to the questions forwarded to me by the secretary, I have thought it best to confine myself to one question, No. 3; inasmuch as on the other side I had either not sufficient direct experience to justify me in troubling the Commission with any remarks, or anything that I wished to say it seemed to me more convenient to say in relation to question 3. For the points which I have discussed are all really relevant to the question, which runs as follows:—

"How far are the present arrangements of Secondary Education in due correlation with those of the universities?

"(*a.*) Generally.

"(*b.*) Specially, with regard to—

"(1.) Poor students.

"(2.) Girls.

"(3.) Students requiring technological instruction."

I have not replied to (*b*) (3) at all; and the other points I have rearranged for the sake of clearness and convenience.

3. I should be disposed to think that the clearest way to answer this question would be briefly to enumerate the points in which there is contact, necessary or natural, between the universities and the secondary schools, to consider what would be "due correlation" in respect of each of these points, and then to examine how far under present arrangements that due correlation is attained.

Correlation of university and Secondary Education.

These points of contact might be enumerated as follows:—

(*a.*) Admission of students from secondary schools to university studies.

(*b.*) Opportunities of study at universities.

(*c.*) University recognition of studies satisfactorily pursued.

(*d.*) Assistance to poor and promising scholars residing at university.

(*e.*) Examination of secondary schools.

(*f.*) Continuation-studies for those unable to reside.

(*g.*) Training of teachers for secondary schools.

I shall confine myself mainly, in speaking of the universities, to Oxford, where I have lived and taught for 15 years, though I may occasionally refer to Cambridge, where I was an undergraduate, and resided one year after my degree, and did some college lecturing and private teaching.

Admission of students.

(*a.*) With regard to the *admission* of students from schools, the due correlation is tolerably obvious; it is to admit all who reach a reasonable minimum of general education, and in that way show themselves properly prepared to undertake further study on university standards.

The admission examination at Oxford (called responsions) requires a student who means to be matriculated and reside as a member of the university: (*a*) To be a man; (*b*) To pass in Latin, Greek, and elementary mathematics.

(*a.*) The first condition constitutes in my view a serious deficiency in the "due correlation." It is true that there are in Oxford about 150 women students who reside there during term, and practically are admitted to many of the privileges of undergraduates (instruction by college and university teachers, the use of laboratories, museums, and libraries); but they have no *right* to any of these privileges; any of the teachers may, and a few do, refuse them admission to their lecture rooms. They are not matriculated, and the university has no official knowledge of their existence in Oxford. They are not even technically admitted to the examinations; for though every examination (in the pass and honour schools) is now open to them, and though they are examined at the same time and place as the undergraduates, by the same examiners, in the same papers, and classed on the same standards, yet technically (as far as the women are concerned) it is a *local examination which happens to be held in Oxford.* Their names are entered by the Secretary to the Local Examinations Delegacy; non-resident women students are examined equally with the resident; and strictly speaking, it is not the women who are admitted to the university examinations, but the local delegacy, who are allowed to use these examinations in place of their own. Although by these circuitous ingenuities most of the practical advantages of university education are secured for the women-students, a plain man may be excused for asking, why should they not be more simply and directly secured? It certainly seems an undesirable distinction to draw between the girls and the boys who are taught in secondary schools, that the former cannot be admitted members of the university, that they get their teaching in Oxford lecture-rooms by private favour, and honours in their examinations by a legal fiction.

It might, however, be replied that two advantages, which the women-students under the present system enjoy, would be lost to them if they were matriculated as members of the university. These are:—(1) that the conditions of examination are more elastic for them, inasmuch as they need not reside in Oxford, they may take their final examinations when they please, and

(2) under the delegates' regulations they are only required to have passed a preliminary examination in which neither Greek nor Latin is compulsory.

As to (1.) I must defer the full discussion of it till I deal with the third head, the question of university recognition of studies. But I may remark at once that I see no reason why matriculation could deprive the women students of their privilege of being admitted to the university class-lists without residence. This privilege they have at Oxford, but not at Cambridge; for at Oxford the theory has always been that residence is required not for admission to *examination*, but for admission to a *degree*. The question of the degree I do not raise here; but there seems no reason why women students should not be admitted to membership of the university—carrying a title to the *educational* privileges—without insisting on residence at all. The non-residents might still pursue their studies elsewhere and be examined and classed at Oxford; the residents might in addition acquire the right to attend college and university lectures, and to be admitted to libraries and museums.

(2.) Is more important in regard to the secondary schools; for if the women university students were matriculated, it might seem reasonable that they should be required to pass the university examinations, *i.e.*, to learn Latin and Greek. In that case all secondary girls' schools who prepared pupils for universities would have to teach Latin and Greek. Are we prepared to force classics upon girls' schools? Position of Greek.

My answer would be, briefly, Latin, yes; Greek, no. Latin is already taught in many, if not most, of the better girls' schools; and many people are of opinion that it would be a great improvement to girls' education if in all the high schools where girls were able to stay till the age of 17 or 18, Latin formed a regular part of their curriculum, at least in the upper forms. In this opinion I concur; and I do not believe there would be any difficulty in carrying it into practice. The question of Greek brings us to the second of the two conditions of admission to the university studies at Oxford; for it may be suitably discussed with regard to men as well as women.

(*b.*) Students then have to pass in Latin, Greek, and elementary mathematics, in order to start on their higher course. The principle of this preliminary is obvious, that the minimum preparation required comprises a school training in letters and science. Science is interpreted (at Oxford) to mean arithmetic, and either Euclid i. or ii., or algebra to quadratic equations. Letters are interpreted to mean one Latin and Greek book, Latin prose composition, and grammar.

The minimum is very low in both constituents; but I am inclined to say that the mathematical knowledge, though very little, is *genuine*, the classical knowledge, at least in Greek, is *not* genuine. In arithmetic and algebra, at least, every question is a problem, however simple; to answer it requires something

besides memory. But in a language the least degree of learning that can be called genuine is the power to read and write, or at least to read a passage (however easy) in that language without having seen it before. The book and the grammar can be committed to memory, and in Greek this is all that the university requires before the student starts on his academic studies properly so called. Nor is any more Greek required for a full degree course. In my opinion the requirement of this minimum of Greek ought not to be maintained, because it is valueless in itself, and deters from a university education (except at the cost of a vexatious waste of time) those numerous students who have not had the opportunity of learning Greek at school or at home.

No one, I think, who knows what the standard of this minimum Greek-test is would traverse my judgment of its intrinsic value; but it would be replied (1) that the proper remedy would be to *raise* it (*e.g.*, by including an easy passage for translation at sight) (2) that the lowness of the standard at least prevents the requirement from being a substantial grievance, (3) that even if the Greek knowledge which the test secures is not in itself valuable, the test is needful to prevent the study from dying out in the secondary schools. I am not impressed by any of these arguments; and though it would be out of place to reply at length to them, I may briefly say (1) that it would be quite impossible at Oxford to raise the standard of compulsory Greek, for all the colleges which depend for a supply of undergraduates on schools where Greek is not taught, or is taught as an extra, would oppose a reform that would injuriously affect their *clientèle*; while if the change were imposed from without (a thing hardly conceivable), it would at once raise an agitation against compulsory Greek altogether; (2) that though the knowledge of Greek secured is useless, it is none the less vexatious for a student, trained without it, to spend six months in acquiring it; (3) that there is no reason to suppose that the study of Greek would die out in the schools if the compulsory minimum were no longer exacted as a condition for entering the universities. For quite apart from the great increase in recent years, or the general interest in Greek, and belief in its educational value—which is discernible in improved text-books, multiplied opportunities of learning, publication of translations of learned journals, of literary criticisms and studies, as well as in the raised standard of school teaching in the subject, and the great recent growth of classical studies and students in the universities—quite apart from this, I say, the *endowments* (prizes, honours, fellowships, &c.) awarded for classical studies, would always have more effect in maintaining the study in those schools where it could be adequately taught, than the abolition of the compulsory minimum would have in tending to discourage it.

I may add that the university has already recognised, in two corners of the educational field, the desirability of dispensing

with the universal requirements of Greek. The first concerns Indian students. Any candidate born in India is allowed in responsions and the first public examination (commonly called "smalls" and "mods") to offer either Sanskrit or Arabic as a substitute for either Greek or Latin. The second case is that of candidates for the proposed research degree. It is premature to lay much stress on this, as the proposal is not yet embodied in a statute; but the resolutions in favour of the new degree were passed last May without opposition, and one of these proposed to admit to the special studies "persons not being graduates of "Oxford who have given satisfactory proof of general education "and of fitness to enter on a course of special study." There is no doubt that (*e.g.*) foreign degrees obtained without Greek will be accepted as "satisfactory proof of general education."

The university which thus allows (or will shortly allow) Hindoo students and graduates of foreign and American universities to obtain degrees at Oxford without Greek, ought certainly to allow the same exemption to the rapidly growing class of English students, trained in secondary schools which do not teach Greek, or on the modern side of those which do.

Opportunities of study.

Opportunities of study.—In regard to this point, again, the principle of due correlation is plain, viz. that the university should provide proper opportunities of advanced study in any branch of liberal education (as opposed to professional training) of which the earlier stages are (or may be) taught in the secondary schools. The ordinary curricula of these schools include Latin, Greek, mathematics, science, French, German, English history, and divinity. The university supplies teachers, prescribed courses of study, and honour examinations, in classics, Oriental languages, mathematics, history (ancient and modern), philosophy, law, science, and theology. Law and philosophy are rightly included in the university optional courses, and (also rightly) not attempted by the schools. The one great omission in the "due correlation" is the study on academic standards of modern languages. In English language and literature the university of Oxford has within the last month (June 1894), after an agitation lasting for several years, at length consented to establish an honour school; though the organising of the course, and the systematic instruction in the subject, is work that yet remains to do. But the language and literatures of France and Germany are at least as regularly studied in secondary schools as those of England; and there ought to be a systematic course provided by the university for the study of these, if not of other European languages. There are, it is true, four university teachers (the "Taylorian" foundation) in French, German, Italian, and Spanish respectively, and there is one scholarship awarded for proficiency in each language in turn. But these institutions are practically wasted, they are ornamental merely. In default of a regular course, in which adequate study would qualify for a degree, it is futile to expect that the Taylorian foundation can possibly encourage systematic study. The

natural result of such imperfectly adapted arrangements is as follows: the teachers have very little to do, and the scholarships fall not to serious students as a reward of regular study, but to clever men who from circumstances of birth or education have acquired a knowledge of the languages. Among the scholars and exhibitioners of the last 12 years I find nine foreign names; this eloquent fact will suffice to dispense me from further argument. The university has since 1887 provided honour exhaminations in Sanskrit, Persian, Hindustani, Hindi, Marathi, Bengali, Tamil, Telugu, Chinese, Burmese, Arabic, Hebrew, and Aramaic—besides Latin and Greek; it provides none in French and German. This anomalous and incongruous omission ought to be rectified, if "due correlation' is to be established.

The anomaly of the situation is increased by the fact that, though a university honour school of English has only just been established, and an honour school of French and German has not been thought of, there nevertheless has existed in Oxford, for 15 years, an honour examination on the highest academic standards, conducted under the authority of the university, in both English and modern languages. This examination has been instituted by the delegacy of local examination, and it is open to women only. It is, strictly speaking (as above explained), a local examination, not open to men, and accidentally held in Oxford only. But substantially it is an honour school of modern languages to which women alone are privileged to be admitted.

It is about time that the university established similar privileges for its own matriculated students.

University recognition of studies.

(*c.*) *University recognition.*—The third point is the duty of the university to give a regular official stamp to those students whose proficiency it has tested (whether by examination or otherwise) and approved. This touches the secondary schools obviously in two ways; the official stamp or degree is the recognition of studies successfully performed, and it is also generally accepted as a gurantee of qualification to teach. It is the final recognition of the secondary scholar, and the initial recognition of the secondary teacher.

The one great defect in the "due correlation" of universities and schools in regard to the degree is this; that while a man who has resided the required time and passed the required examination is allowed the degree, to a woman who has done exactly the same it is refused.

This strange and untenable anomaly is partly explained by the history of women's examinations at Oxford. The university at first established separate honour examinations for women, by request of those interested in their higher education; and, as there was then no thought of a degree for women, these examinations were (as partially explained above) entrusted to the local delegacy to organise. The courses, it was thought, would be useful to those who wished to pursue their studies; and the honours would serve as qualifications for teaching posts in

secondary girls' schools. It was found, however, that the public and even the head-mistresses and governing bodies of schools failed to recognise the standard of the acquirements which these examinations were meant to guarantee. "We understand," they said, "what is the value of a first class in the university honour "schools of classics, history, or science; but we do not under- "stand these women's examinations; we do not know what "these classes mean." The friends of women's education in Oxford were thus forced, in the interests of students who meant to be teachers, to apply to the university to admit women to the mens examinations. Four schools were thus opened in 1884; and for the last ten years whenever another school was needed further application was made, and the university granted the request. Thus gradually there has been effected a complete substitution of the men's examinations for the original women's examinations instituted by the delegacy, the only special women's examinations which now remain are the preliminary (in which other languages may be taken instead of the Latin and Greek required of the men), and the Modern Language Honour Examination (to which the men have nothing corresponding).

Thus, as the resident women students have increased in number, both the courses of study they pursue and the examinations whereby they are tested have become gradually—by steady modification determined by practical needs—more and more closely assimilated to those of the men. In a short time hardly any important difference will remain, except the minimum Greek test, which has to be passed by all the men, but is taken only by those women who are classical students. And in my view, as I have argued above on other grounds, this requirement is one of which the men also ought to be relieved. Whether this be done or no, it is clear that the whole tendency is towards a state of things where the anomaly of confining the degree to men becomes accentuated.

There is further very strong evidence that injury is done to the women university students, and to the secondary schools, by the fact that the former cannot obtain degrees. Cases have come under my notice where governing bodies, in selecting teachers for girl's schools, have given preference to graduates, though the qualifications of Oxford students competing may have been higher. Thus an Oxford (or Cambridge) student with first-class honours may be rejected, and her services lost to a school, owing to the natural (but erroneous) assumption on the part of others that a graduate (of London or one of the Scotch universities) must necessarily be better qualified.

The main objection to granting the degree to women that emerges in private discussion is the fear lest the vote (which could not be refused to graduates) would not be wisely exercised in university matters. This gratuitous assumption is daily more difficult to maintain, now that it has been shown that women students are in no way inferior to men either in the industry or

the success with which, in every branch, they pursue their studies. And the recent admission of women to full privileges in all the four Scotch universities makes their exclusion from the degree in Oxford and Cambridge all the more exceptional and anomalous.

The one educational argument against granting the degree is that, once granted, all the resident students would practically have an overwhelming inducement to read for it, and so under existing arrangements would be compelled to master the minimum of Greek and Latin) needful for responsions. This (as I explained above in dealing with *admission*) would practically force the girls' schools (which prepare for university studies) to include Greek among the subjects taught; or else the girls who passed on to the university would have to spend valuable time in learning enough to pass responsions. The best solution would seem to be not to refuse the degree on this account, but to abolish the compulsory Greek. Even if this were held undesirable—and there is a strong opinion opposed to it—I should still be favour of the degree; for the grievance of having to spend a few months in learning useless Greek seems less than the grievance of being refused the degree. And as to the schools, I find some schoolmistresses of opinion that it would be both easy and advisable to introduce the teaching of Greek, so far as to meet the needs of girls who were intended for the university.

Another argument that has been used against granting women the degree requires a word. As regards the non-resident women students, the privilege which they now enjoy of being able to enter for all the university examinations is a very valuable one, and on all grounds should certainly not be interfered with. But it has been suggested that if the degree were granted to women, this privilege would disappear. Of course, as residence is a necessary condition for *degree*, the non-residents could not expect to graduate; but there is no kind of reason why they should not still be allowed to enter for the *examinations*. This last is a privilege, it may be remarked, which exists at Oxford and not at Cambridge, owing to the distinction made at Oxford (as above mentioned) between degree and examination. And this educational advantage is not merely confined to private students living at home, to whom it is a very valuable opportunity, likely to be much more widely useful when it is better known. It is also open to girls' colleges situated anywhere in the country. Holloway College has already entered several students for the Oxford examinations and other places will doubtless do the same When the degree is granted to the residents, the university (while still preserving to all non-residents the present right of admission to examinations) might also extend to local colleges the right of affiliation, which enables students to count residence for two year's at their local college in place of one year's residence at Oxford.

(d.) *Poor Scholars.*—The endowments left to make the higher earning accessible to the poor are almost entirely in the hands of the colleges; the university has nothing to do with them. College scholarships and poor scholars.

Of the college scholarships, which the Commission of 1880 fixed at the uniform rate of 80*l.*, it is difficult to say what proportion are held by really poor men; but there is no doubt at all that many are held by men whose parents could easily afford to pay the full expenses of their education. This is a plain waste of endowments. It is very important in the interests of the higher education, and would be a great benefit to the secondary schools, that the money should go mainly or exclusively to those who would not be able to have a university education without it. But the practical difficulties of securing this, without serious loss in other directions, are great. The honour and position of a scholar are highly valued, and act as a stimulus to industry. The stigma of poverty is severely felt by the young, and it is on all grounds undesirable that in a society of young students it should be publicly known which are poor. It is hard to devise any method, at once equitable, judicious, and inoffensive, of ascertaining where pecuniary help is needed.

At many colleges certain exhibitions are now awarded to those who satisfy the head of the college that they are in need of assistance. As for as concerns the security that the aid shall go to the right recipient, this is probably the best plan. It leaves the exact method of ascertaining the facts to the responsible head, and the communications are private between him and the parent. The weak point is, that the condition (of poverty) is advertised, and so the other students know (or may know) which of their body are poor.

Perhaps the suggestion least open to objection is this, that the value of the scholarships should be largely reduced, say by 50*l.*; that the status, conditions, open examinations, &c. should remain as at present; but that the money thus set free should be used to increase the value of the scholarships and exhibitions to those who satisfied the head of the college that they were in need of assistance. Thus the bulk of the money would go to the right people, while the undergraduates as a body would know that some among them were in receipt of larger endowments on the score of poverty, but would not know publicly which they were.

I should like to add that there is a startling disparity between the endowments for men and those for women students. Apart from school exhibitions, and from close college exhibitions confined to boys from particular schools, there are annually awarded in Oxford about 150 open scholarships and exhibitions to boys, of the total value of about 10,000*l.*, and to girls about six* scholarships of the total value of 250*l.* This, of course,

* Even this overstates the case, for of these six the greater part are not endowments, but either paid out of Hall profits, or privately raised by subscription from year to year. It should be added, that the expenses of teaching the women students receive subvention from private subscription to the amount of about 80*l.* annually.

is quite irrespective of fellowships and endowed college and university offices, which in the case of the women's colleges do not exist.

It is clear that "due correlation" of the university with the secondary schools, in respect of pecuniary help to learning, is very imperfectly attained while such inequalities exist.

Examination of secondary schools.

(e.) *Examination of Secondary Schools.*—It is obviously desirable that secondary schools should be examined periodically by an independent educational body; and for many reasons it is best that this body should be a university.

At Oxford the two boards which direct the examinations of schools are the Oxford and Cambridge Joint Board for Examination of Schools, and the Delegacy of Local Examinations. Both bodies habitually examine schools (or certain parts of schools), as well as award a certificate to individual students for proficiency in specified subjects. These subjects include all the ordinary branches of school curricula.

But as both boards have been specially asked to reply to the Royal Commission with regard to their work, and as I am a member of both, it seems better that I should say no more on this head.

I will only say in regard to the joint board, that in spite of the inconvenience of working an administration by committees which do not reside in the same place, the balance of advantage from combination of the two universities is, in my view, very great. The constant intercourse and exchange of views between the members of the two universities, both on the board and in the processes of setting and revising papers, conducting the examinations, and awarding certificates, is of great value, both in keeping the standard steady and constantly improving the methods. It is no small advantage, moreover, that there is neither temptation to, nor suspicion of, any competition between the universities, which might arise if each pursued the same work separately.

It is worth considering whether these advantages, or some of them, might not be extended to the local examinations

Non-resident students.

(f.) *Continuation-Studies for Students unable to reside at the University.*—Just as the Education Department encourages ex-primary scholars to continue private study by promoting continuation evening schools, so there is much that a university might do to help those who have left secondary schools, but are unable to reside at college, both by providing local teaching and local examination.

The local teaching provided by the university extension system has already done much to meet this need; but as that will be separately reported on, I confine myself to a bare mention of it here.

The local examinations are also useful for those secondary scholars who have left school early, and who have the time and energy to continue some sort of systematic study. Oxford has

this year (June 1894) instituted a new higher local examination, which it is hoped may be of some use in meeting this need. For women who are able to take a more advanced course there are the university examinations open, as has been fully explained. The obstacles to wider usefulness here are two: first the difficulty of making known to private students, living at home or engaged in business or professions, the existence of these opportunities, and of providing them with the necessary explanations and guidance in their study; and secondly the difficulty of securing them the needful local teaching. There is no inherent reason why a student who has left a secondary school at an early age might not by aid of university extension teaching, students' associations, and any local teaching that might be available, continue systematic study and obtain a class in a university honour school, without ever leaving home except for a few days' examination at Oxford.

(g.) *Training of Teachers.*—The mass of secondary teachers, at any rate in the better schools, must in any case have received their general (and special) education in a university, and so far be trained there; but at Cambridge there is only a very imperfect system, and at Oxford no system at all, whereby these teachers can obtain professional training properly so-called. I need not perhaps argue at any length that this is a serious deficiency in the "due correlation" of university and secondary schools. Nor need I reply at length to the pedantic contention that the university ought to decline to supply professional training, and confine itself to general education. In three cases the university rightly disregards this rule. It supplies professional training for doctors; it teaches special subjects to Indian civil servants; and it has recently established a day training college, including all arrangements for the special professional training of primary teachers. The secondary teachers who in any case reside at the university are a much larger body than the other three put together; and have (it seems to me) a more direct claim on the university for help in preparing for their profession. Training of teachers.

The training of secondary teachers should, in my view, consist of three things: (1) instruction in the *theory* and *history* of education; (2) instruction in the *practice;* (3) apprenticeship.

(2) and (3) might be united under the single name of practical training or apprenticeship. But it is clearer to distinguish them; for in learning practically how to teach there are too very different stages, corresponding to my last two heads. First, the student should receive oral hints and suggestions; should be made to prepare notes of lessons; should deliver these lessons, after the notes had been criticised and amended, in the presence of the teacher; and should receive further hints and criticisims bearing on the lessons just given. This is the first stage, which I have called *practical instruction,* and is carried

on under the constant inspection and with the regular aid of the teacher. The second stage should be a prolonged period of trial, where the student is teaching largely by himself, but under the general supervision of an experienced person. This I have called *apprenticeship*.

If these three parts of training be adopted, then the two first might be taken at the university and the third at school. For (2), of course, a practising school would be required; but experience shows that it would not be difficult to obtain. The defect of the Cambridge system is that, though there is practical instruction (in the sense of lectures on practice by experts), and questions are set in the examination on practical difficulties, there is no real test of practical faculty, and no attempt made to impart or develop it.

In the public schools and the higher secondary schools generally there are two causes for the very slow progress which has been made towards the training of teachers. In the first place, the headmasters, who are eager to give employment to the best men from the universities, naturally fear that if they imposed the condition of one or two years' training on their assistants before appointing them, the best men, for whom there is and must be competition, would simply accept other offers. In the second place a great many—it is probable that I might say the majority—of the men who compose the staff of these schools, who are in every case themselves untrained, have very little interest or belief in training. "The system works well "without it." "Teaching is a personal relation between boys "and master which no training could prescribe for." "The "highest qualities of the teacher are neither taught nor teach-"able." "Training would tend to make a man go by rule "rather than by intelligence." Such are some of the arguments one constantly hears. But there are two things which none but the inexperienced would deny about the secondary schools: (1) that in all schools it is too common to find many teachers who at first, and some teachers who permanently, are deficient in the primary requisite of being able to keep proper order and discipline in their classes, or in some other elementary faculty, which training would do much to develop, and (2) that it could do no harm, and must do some good to every man to be forced to read and think of what others have written about education, and to practice teaching under experienced guidance before he begins to teach. As Dr. Fitch said of teaching, "A bad teacher "can be made tolerably useful, a poor teacher is made better, "and even the best is improved."

I see no remedy for these difficulties, in respect to supplying the secondary schools with trained masters, until Parliament insists that the teacher, no less than the surgeon or physician, shall be qualified professionally before he begins to practice. But if registration of teachers was once made compulsory, so that every teacher was forced to have a qualification on pain of being unable to recover fees, these difficulties would of course

disappear, and with them doubtless also the prejudice against training.

The question of what ought to be accepted as qualification is in this connexion very important, and though I cannot, of course, discuss it at length, there is one point I should like to draw attention to. In Sir R. Temple's Bill (printed by order, 8th December 1890) it was proposed to admit at once to the register any graduate. As a temporary provision, to tide over the transition to a general system of training, this might be accepted; but if (as the Bill proposed) it were permanently adopted, it would in the higher secondary schools leave things exactly as they are, *i.e.*, the teachers would not be trained at all. This would, in my view, be a disastrous mistake. It would saddle the schools with the same number of incompetent teachers, and of teachers who begin by being incompetent and learn their business at the expense of the boys, as at present; and it would give explicit support to the baseless theory that a graduate as such is a superior person who can teach by the light of nature without having learned how to do it. I may also observe that it would take no account of the essential difference, which on the average is very wide, between the pass-man who has resided three years and read the minimum, and the honour man who has read for four years, living in the society of scholars and studying on for higher standards.

(Signed) A. SIDGWICK.

Oxford, July 1894.

PROFESSOR H. SIDGWICK.

In answering the questions sent me by the Royal Commission on Secondary Education, I shall confine myself as much as possible to points on which I have had special experience. I shall therefore only answer questions 2, 3 and 5; and in answering question 2 I shall speak only of the work of the local examinations, as I have been for several years a member of the syndicate appointed to manage them, while I have had no experience of the work of the Joint Board.

I have no doubt that beneficial effects have been produced by the local examinations, quite outweighing the drawbacks by which they have been attended.

The practically important questions seem to be:—

1. How far these drawbacks have tended to increase or diminish?
2. How far they could be avoided, and at the same time the advantages retained, by any different system?

As regards (1) I should say confidently that they have tended to diminish. I will give my reasons for thinking this in detail.

I may begin by saying that there is one point in which the examinations have, I believe, improved as time has gone on, which hardly comes under this head; I mean that the standard has risen.

I should not count this as a case of the diminution of a drawback, since I do not think, speaking broadly, that the standard was ever unduly low, considering the average quality of the school-work that the examinations had to test and guide. When Cambridge undertook the business of external examinations, its capacity for maintaining a high standard in pass examinations might reasonably have been doubted. But the historical and other causes for the low standard of knowledge certified by the ordinary degree of this university, did not operate in the case of the local examinations, and I do not think that the competition between Oxford and Cambridge has had any effect in lowering the standard. Indeed, as I have said I believe that it has risen in our work since the examinations were instituted, along with the improvement in school-teaching which I believe the examinations to have promoted.

It has, however, been a real drawback that examiners and managing syndicate have not always had adequate knowledge and experience. Knowledge of the subjects has never, of course, been wanting, so far as the main branches of school work was concerned; I think, however, that in such subjects as English, French, and German literature, our work was at first liable to be a little amateurish. But during the generation that has elapsed since the examinations were first instituted, the range of university studies has continually extended, so that the danger of any shortcomings in this respect is now, at any rate, much diminished.

A more serious drawback lies in the want of experience of school-teaching. It is only by accident, so to say, that the syndicate includes among its members any persons who have actually taught in schools, and only a minority, not, I think a very large minority, of the examiners appointed by the syndicate have belonged to this class. I think this is a drawback inherent in our system. At the same time, I think its effect has been diminished as time has gone on, partly through the experience acquired by examiners who have frequently inspected and examined individual schools for the syndicate, partly through the experience gained by the managing secretaries who are, of course, in continual communication with schoolmasters.

Another drawback, inherent in any system of external examinations, lies in their tendency to hamper a good teacher in his choice of educational methods and instruments, and to encourage the use of methods which, though well adapted to secure success in examination, are not so well adapted for the communication of solid knowledge and the development of intellectual faculty. To some extent this drawback is inevitable, and must be weighed against the advantages of an independent test and attestation of efficiency, which can only be secured by

an external examination, common to a number of different schools. Still, it should be the aim of the body managing the examination to minimize this inevitable evil, by constructing the examination so as to allow as much free play as possible to the diverse aims and methods of different schools, and I think that the changes in detail which have been introduced from time to time in the Cambridge local examinations, have tended generally in this direction. An important remedy for this drawback is to be found in a full and free communication to the syndicate of the criticisms and suggestions of schoolmasters, and any organization of the latter, tending to render their influence more weighty and systematic, is from this point of view advantageous; though I think that the ultimate responsibility for all decisions should rest with the university.

Another drawback, cognate to the last mentioned, lies in the danger that teachers will concentrate their attention on the pupils sent in for the external examinations, to the comparative neglect of others. This, however, might be adequately guarded against by systematic inspection and examination of each school as a whole; and it seems obviously expedient that such inspection and examination should be managed by the body that manages the external examination for which the school in question prepares, so that the two systems of examination may work as harmoniously as possible. But though, with this view the syndicate undertakes the inspection and examination of individual schools, it has, of course, no means of enforcing this on all schools that prepare for its local examination; and, in fact, only a small minority of these schools avail themselves of this system of separate inspection and examination. The importance of securing adequate systematic and impartial inspection and examination of each school will no doubt be kept in view in any organization of secondary education to which the labours of the Commission may lead.

This leads me to the last drawback that I have to mention, which attaches not to the Cambridge local examinations considered in themselves, but to the whole aggregate of examinations, including the London Matriculation as well as the Oxford and Cambridge Local and Joint Board Examinations, which have practically come to serve as "leaving examinations" for the pupils in secondary schools. This multiplicity of tests has the advantage of allowing a considerable variety of choice to the schools; but it has in some cases a disturbing effect on the school teaching, so far as the same school is compelled to adapt its teaching to two or more different systems of examination at once. Of this disadvantage I have only heard casually; it has not been brought before me in the work of the syndicate, and I have no means of estimating its seriousness; but in any case a well-organized system of education ought to aim at excluding it, and I think that a General Educational Council might do much to exclude it, without going so far as to substitute a single

Government system for the examinations of the different universities, a heroic remedy which I do not recommend.

Questions 3 & 5.

Question 3, if interpreted in a wide sense, might lead to a discussion of the whole scheme of university teaching and study at Cambridge. I do not, however, suppose that so wide an interpretation is intended; and I only refer to it in order to say under head (*b* 2), that Cambridge, after some hesitation, has, by establishing an honour course in mechanism, definitely accepted technology as an academic subject; and that this is, in my opinion, a right decision on a question that has long been disputed.

But I shall not here discuss this question, or the general distribution of subjects in the various curricula at Cambridge. I shall, in what follows, confine myself to two points:—

(1.) Whether the preliminary examination is adequately adapted to the education given in secondary schools.

(2.) Whether the university makes due provision for the training of teachers for such schools.

The first point has been so much discussed that I will only express very briefly a decided opinion.

At present, as is well known, the previous examinations at Oxford and Cambridge are only correlated with the classical system of school education.

I think that no reform in our academic system is at present so urgently needed as a change in the previous examination which would bring it into correlation with the modern system of education, now so widely established in secondary schools; and I trust that the influence of the Commission will be directed to the attainment of this end. I think that the change would tend ultimately to improve the quality of classical as well as of modern education; since it would render it easier to raise the standard of knowledge of Latin and Greek required from boys trained on the classical system.

I may observe that in this respect the relation of both Cambridge and Oxford to the school education of girls is in a far more satisfactory condition, since both universities have refrained, in the case of women, from requiring a knowledge of Latin and Greek as a condition of entering the examinations that test academic work.

I pass to consider the part taken by the university in the training of teachers for secondary schools.

Here the important point to notice is that the university has never expressly set itself to the task of training schoolmasters; it has drifted into it. Its course of study in arts was designed to serve the purpose of the general education that, in the case of members of the "liberal" professions, was thought desirable as a preliminary to professional training; but, actually, they have come to constitute the sole professional training of almost all the university graduates who teach in secondary schools.

One result of this is that the system of examinations is not perfectly adapted to test and attest the qualifications of such teachers. Its deficiency in this respect is chiefly found in the pass examinations. Speaking broadly, anyone who has obtained honours in any Cambridge Tripos Examination is qualified—so far as knowledge goes—to teach the subjects in which he has been examined to the boys in a secondary school —at any rate up to a certain point. But the same cannot be said of one who has taken an ordinary degree, and it would in my opinion be a decided advantage to education that the universities should be made to say how far the recipient of a B.A. degree by examination is intended to be certified as a qualified teacher of the subjects in which he has been examined, *i.e.*, qualified, so far as knowledge is concerned. This is not the least of the advantages that I should hope to obtain by a systematic registration of teachers. I think that in such a case the certification of the university might be accepted without question. I should rely on the academic conscience, assisted by free criticism from the outside, but it does not seem to me an undue interference to compel it to take the responsibility of explaining the meaning, for educational purposes, of its symbolic pronouncements.

The traditional assumption that a university graduate as such is adequately prepared for the function of teaching in secondary schools has had another result; it has caused the idea that such a graduate needs to be trained in the art of teaching to appear paradoxical to the majority of educated Englishmen, although a similar need is generally recognised in the case of elementary teachers. Hence, though fifteen years ago, at the request of a committee of headmasters, the university of Cambridge established a system of lectures and examinations in the theory, history, and practice of education, it has remained almost inoperative up to the present time, so far as the schoolmasters for whose benefit it was primarily instituted are concerned; though it has been used to an important extent by women preparing for secondary teaching. I have no doubt that the theory of education should be taught at the universities, and that some systematic practical training should be given to all teachers in secondary schools; though whether the practical training should be carried on at the universities, in conjunction with theoretical study, or afterwards in the form of apprenticeship at the schools, as in the German "Probe-jahr," is a question on which I have no experience that would justify me in expressing a confident opinion. I should be disposed to allow free scope for both methods.

HENRY SIDGWICK.

Trinity College, Cambridge.
July 4th 1894.

REV. T. B. STRONG.

V.—Endowments; whether or not now applied to education.
1. What additional power (if any) is desirable for changing their applications?

IX.—Central Educational Board.
2. Is any, and what central board needed?
b. What should be its functions?

X.—Miscellaneous.
2. University extension classes; what should be their relation to Secondary Education?

I am forced by the limits of my experience to consider those only of the queries of the Royal Commission which have a bearing on university work; and I have ventured to treat these in combination, as I am convinced that the several points raised cannot be treated separately.

Functions of University.

The English universities are endowed bodies of which the only avowed object is education. The proper use of such endowments depends, therefore, upon a clear notion of what university education is. I have tried to put down the idea I have formed of the various functions which the universities perform, indicating the elements due (1) to tradition, (2) to recent changes under the new statutes, (3) to changes in the conditions of university life. It is from this point of view that I have approached (4) the question of a central board, *i.e.*, as directing and controlling a university, (5) the position of university extension, as carrying into various districts in the country the standards and ideals of a university.

1. The first point I wish to note is the following. Till recent years the conception of education which obtained in the University of Oxford was independent of professional or technical skill. It seemed to be the province of the university to provide a liberal training for the mind for every one indiscriminately, leaving each individual to pursue his own special bent in learning or to follow his profession upon the basis of this general education. It formed no part of the primary idea of an education to supply certificates of proficiency for professional life. In modern times the university has largely departed from this ancient view of learning. The causes for this change are very various, and have aided the result in various degrees.

2. The whole social condition of Oxford has changed. London is within easy distance, and the custom is increasing of entertaining visitors in Oxford. Oxford itself has grown, and social duties have become increasingly exacting. The colleges are no longer bodies of unmarried men living in college, the system of allowing married fellows having seriously modified college life. These may seem trivial circumstances to be considered in such a statement as this. The reason for alluding to them is that they are real and that they are permanent. It is impossible to think of resuscitating conditions which have been decisively removed.

3. There has grown up an increased sense of responsibility among tutors in regard to their pupils. In many colleges they not only generally supervise the proceedings of their pupils; they also teach them. The statutes of 1882 have given great force to this change, as they provide but few positions for men who research merely and are not engaged in teaching work.

It is probable that the educational value somewhat oddly given to athletics and social intercourse, quite apart from intellectual capacity or attainment, represents a further departure from the old view of university education. But it is difficult to estimate these things accurately. Athletics is probably much more of a special profession than it used to be; and on the other hand, the advantages of "making friends," &c., is less highly prized than it was.

The combined effect of these and similar causes is disadvantageous to learning in the whole sense. Fellows of colleges have their time in term crowded with occupations of one sort or another, so that their serious work has to be done in vacation. Owing to the comparative shortness of the Christmas and Easter vacations, this means, for most men, the Long. It is hardly necessary to point out how seriously work is impeded when it has to be pursued in so broken a fashion.

II. On the other hand, the disposition towards the opposite view of education has largely grown, and the relation of the university to a professional career has been more widely recognised. Here, again, various causes have been at work.

(*a.*) The prevalence of competitive examinations, the multiplication of honour schools, are among the chief. That these were necessarily introduced and developed I am fully persuaded, but they have not proved an unmixed good.

(*b.*) The anxiety of an increasingly large number of people for a university education, who yet cannot afford, or do not care for, more than the *imprimatur* which a degree puts upon their studies, has seriously affected the studies of the university.

I venture to think that the old and the new views of the end of education are not easily combined, and that, if the present order of things continues, or if changes are made unwisely, a conflict would be brought about between them which would damage or even ruin the university altogether. Probably, unless some violent reaction took place, the more modern ideas would turn out to be the strongest, would appropriate the endowments, and reject the more ancient type of learning. This would seem to me to be an unqualified misfortune, and there are many reasons for this opinion.

(1.) The learning which is characteristic of English universities is valuable in itself, so far as any learning can be called valuable which has no immediate bearing upon professional life. (2.) A high standard of learning pursued for its own sake goes a long way to obviate a natural tendency to superficiality in the studies and the examinations necessary to secure the certificates awarded

by the university. In other words, if, through any circumstances, learning as such ceased to hold the place it has in our universities, all the standards of teaching and examination would be degraded, and the certificates granted would diminish in value. The only safeguard to the examination system of a university is a high level of learning among its resident members. Thus, though learning of the more profound kind must always appear cumbrous—must always take time in acquisition—and is apt to look unsatisfactory to the utilitarian mind—it is, I think, absolutely necessary, as the foundation of all education whatever; and the more earnestly the State enters upon the problem of higher education, the more necessary it will be to secure a real and trustworthy standard of learning in the universities.

In this connexion it is natural to speak of a numerous class in our universities—those who never attain to great learning, nor educate themselves for professional life, but who pass through a prescribed course and get a degree without honours—the large population of pass-men. Such men would, of course, have no place at all in a university which aimed solely at encouraging special and minute research. But, though learning for learning's sake seems to me to be the primary function of a university, I should regret the disappearance of the pass-men. It would be an utter mistake to suppose that their time is wasted, or that they are not worth the trouble of teaching. And, moreover, as they form, and will always form, the majority of the population at any given time, they deserve consideration in any educational scheme. It is also a mistake to suppose that the difference between pass and honour men is got rid of, if all men alike are made to read for an honour school. The difference (apart from accidental causes) is one of nature and constitution. The pass-man has not a literary habit of mind, nor will external pressure create it in him; and he is frequently less satisfactorily educated by being forced into an honour school than by being allowed to follow the less aspiring course. In the latter case he is really educated according to his powers, in the former he is introduced into an atmosphere of specialism which never suits his mental character, and in which he never is at ease. As I have had nearly 10 years' experience of teaching, of which far the greatest part has been pass-work, I say this without fear of contradiction.

These two forms of education seem to be a necessary part of any university system which does not involve a total departure from English traditions. But if the functions of the universities are restricted to these, it is plain that they will fail to meet the growing needs of the country. Men and women in all classes of life are demanding knowledge, and it will be a great disadvantage to the country, and to the universities themselves, if the universities stand aloof. They have been engaged for centuries in education, and a high standard and ideal of learning survives in them, which ought to tell upon the learning of the country. This fact, viewed in the light of the condition of the University

of Oxford, as I see it, leads me to make the following suggestions in answer to the questions of the Commissioners.

Use of endowments.

I.—Extended powers should be given to the governing bodies of colleges to help from their endowments poor men. The existing system of competitive examinations plays into the hands of those parents who can pay for the best tuition for their sons, *i.e.*, into the hands of the rich. Such a change as I propose would imply a much greater confidence in the governing bodies of colleges than is characteristic of the present system.

Functions of a Central Board.

II.—If a central board were constituted to regulate educational questions its functions should be entirely regulative and financial. It might, for instance, review periodically the use made of endowments by colleges and similar institutions; it might even form the means of communication between universities and educational centres elsewhere; but on no account should it interfere either with the methods or the character or the standard of university education.

University extension.

III.—The universities should develop and organise the university extension movement. They should in this way bring themselves into connexion with education of very various kinds, and they should grant certificates containing official recognition, for very various branches of study, including technical proficiency of various kinds. Residence in the university with the degrees attained by a course of study with residence, should, as heretofore, be connected with learning in the higher sense.

I think that by adopting some such suggestions as these several dangers might be avoided which, in my opinion, would result from a supreme educational board with absolute powers of control; and this, if any changes are contemplated, would seem to be the chief alternative plan.

(1.) Administration of endowments by a central supreme board is apt to be mechanical. Such a board cannot but find individual cases—the most important of all in this particular subject—peculiarly hard to estimate.

(2.) It could only regulate the affairs of the universities by insisting upon external signs of activity. This would mean one of two things: either an immense extension of competitions and certificates with all their attendant evils; or the production of endless monographs—somewhat in the German style. These would be of little use except to swell the "rummaging lots" in secondhand bookstalls.

I hope that the Commissioners will excuse the extremely free use I have made of their kindness in asking my opinion upon Secondary Education.

T. B. Strong.

Christ Church, Oxford.

PRINCIPAL A. W. WARD AND PROFESSOR WILKINS.

College scholarships and exhibitions.

1. (*a.*)—We have so recently reorganised our system of entrance scholarships at this college, consolidating small exhibitions and establishing the principle that, while credit is to be given for all the main branches of secondary school training, the award of the scholarships will be mainly determined by excellence in some one of these branches, that we cannot speak of the effects on schools of the present application of our funds and methods of competition. We look forward, however, to a considerable effect being exercised by our college scholarships in combination with our university examination system in the direction both of encouraging special lines of study in schools (the study of physical science, *e.g.*, in schools where it has hitherto held a subordinate place) and of inducing schoolmasters to fill up gaps which have hitherto been frequently conspicuous in their system (*e.g.*, the provision of a sufficient instruction in English language and history).

(*b.*) We are not personally in favour of such restrictions, but we recognise the advisability of encouraging local goodwill towards education by allowing restrictions of locality; and we think that a preference should always be given to candidates of narrow means in cases of equality, the term not being interpreted with excessive strictness. For the rest conscience may be left to induce well-to-do students or their parents to resign scholarships gained; but there are not many such students in our college or university.

University examining agencies.

2. Our opinion of the local examinations is that they have done and are doing genuinely useful work in giving solidity to Secondary Education; and we only wish that the vastness of the operations of this system had not made it necessary for some of its work to be done in a more or less perfunctory fashion.

The system of examination of schools by the joint board seems to combine very successfully freedom for the schools to pursue their own methods, and the requirement of a reasonable range of studies; *e.g.*, schools have a wide option as to the set books which they may offer in Latin and Greek. At the same time there has been a marked improvement in the translation at sight (especially in the smaller schools) from Latin and Greek.

As to the extension system, we do not recognise any relation between its real purposes, which are not educational but stimulative, and those of Secondary Education; although the two systems must necessarily frequently come into mutual contact.

Correlation of university and Secondary Education.

3. (*a.*)—In our own young Victoria University the absence of a proper correlation of its arrangements with those of the secondary schools of the district is its greatest weakness. Much, however, is to be hoped for from time; more especially as the college out of which the university grew, and which was the type of the other colleges, only gradually worked its way from

an amphibious position to that of a university college, and still suffers from the doubtful conditions of earlier stages of its existence. The preliminary examination of the university will gradually be recognised as the point which should be reached by ordinary scholars of secondary schools, more especially if, in accordance with the recommendation of the late Professor Jowett read at the Oxford Conference on Secondary Education, it is possible for the various universities of the country to assimilate, if not to render identical, their matriculation requirements.

(*b.*)—Confining ourselves to this university and its colleges only, we are of opinion that poor and meritorious boys may, without difficulty, pass from the public secondary schools and the highest classes of board schools into the university with a prospect of covering their expenses, so far as classes are concerned, by scholarships gained on entrance. There are, however, occasional instances where maintenance is beyond the power of young men at this college; but this cannot be remedied except with the aid of special funds.

2. As is well known, the present arrangements of secondary instruction are only imperfectly correlated with those of the universities in case of girls, nor is it well to expect too rapid a progress in girls' schools at large towards completeness under this head, so long as there is no consensus that an ordinary female education should follow the same lines as an ordinary male education. At the same time it may be observed that in the high schools for girls of Manchester the curriculum is so arranged as to prepare girls of proper age very effectively to pass our preliminary examination and to enter successfully on courses either for pass or for honours degrees both in arts and in science. Cases are not unknown, but they are much rarer, from other schools.

3. As to students requiring technological instruction, the correlation has hitherto remained inadequate, and we are very decidedly of opinion that a more satisfactory correlation might be secured if the grant of technical scholarships and the like by public bodies were confined to persons who give evidence of passing satisfactorily through courses of technical science definitely laid down, and prescribed with a reasonable amount of uniformity.

4. A fair proportion of our graduates, both in arts and in science, take up the work of teachers in secondary schools after graduation.

Training of teachers.

5. On this head we append the scheme of a university certificate in the theory and practice of education recently recommended for adoption by a Committee of the Board of Studies and by the Senate of the Owens College respectively, and awaiting confirmation by the board.

University and public services.

7. In our opinion the influence of the universities on the preparation of students for the public service has been a wholly insufficient one, except for the preparation given at Oxford and

Cambridge, and we believe formerly at Dublin, for a particular branch like the Indian Civil Service. A great deal might, in our opinion, be effected in this direction by consultation between the universities and the chief secondary schools, and steps towards this end are actually in contemplation here as between the Owens College and the Manchester Grammar School.

(Signed) A. W. WARD,
Principal of the Owens College, Manchester.
(Signed) A. S. WILKINS,
Professor of Latin in the Owens College, Manchester.

THE PRESIDENT OF MAGDALEN COLLEGE.

1. *College Scholarships and Exhibitions.*

(*a.*) They give point, direction, stimulus, and reward to school studies.

They supply the schools and the public with some standard and measure of efficiency.

Small or new schools become known and reputed through winning them, and clever boys are discovered and encouraged, and their parents are induced to make efforts to give them university opportunities.

On the other hand, there are inevitable evils; over-pressure and over-work, the temptation to the student to aim at success rather than knowledge, and to the master to advertise his school. This last is enhanced by the publication in the newspapers of comparisons of schools, often based on partial evidence or otherwise misleading.

There is also a tendency to undue or premature specialisation in studies. This is naturally less observable in the case of classical scholarships, which include, beside Latin and Greek, English essay writing and questions on history, political economy, literature, and general topics.

This specialisation is probably worst in Scholarships for Mathematics, but is a danger also in History and Natural Science.

It should be noted that colleges from time to time make special efforts to counteract it, and further that, at Oxford at any rate, they aim at electing for promise and ability rather than amassed knowledge; *propter spem* and not *propter rem*, as Pattison said of the elections to Fellowships at Oriel. In my opinion it is a pity that there are not a few scholarships for combined subjects to encourage what used to be called "double" men, who appear to be dying out. It may be noted that an attempt is made in history scholarships to encourage the study of modern languages.

On the whole, I think that the advantages decidedly outweigh the disadvantages, and that the competition for scholarships has a wholesome effect on the schools.

(*b.*) *Restrictions on eligibility.*

In my opinion the "open" system is decidedly the best as a general rule. Restrictions to large areas or nationalities, which correspond with real differences of condition, such as Scotland or Wales, have something to be said for them. So again have restrictions in the case of places outlying and consequently at some disadvantage, such as the Channel Islands, There should be, I think, maintained a certain number of scholarships so limited, with power to throw open in case no candidate of good merit. qualified under the restrictions, appears.

N.B.—The operation of "close" scholarships from great schools is very curious, and has not, I think, been sufficiently noticed. It is certainly the case that at the three colleges in Oxford, where this system obtains, New College, Christ College, and St. John's, the close scholars from Winchester, Westminster, and Merchant Taylors, have been for a number of years past the best scholars in those colleges, and they would appear to be above the average of "open" scholars generally. (Thus the Ireland scholarship for Latin and Greek, which is still the most distinguished prize in the university, has for many years, with only one single exception, been won either by an "open" scholar of one single college or by a "close" scholar of one of the colleges named.)

It does not appear that the schools suffer, for as is well known, Merchant Taylors has one of the very best records of recent years for winning scholarships at both universities, and Winchester needs no testimonial for efficiency. It should be noted that the school foundations are not confined in any way as regards area or otherwise, but are open to all comers.

As regards restrictions in the interests of poor students it would appear, I think, again that the "open" system is the best, but that there should be a limited number of scholarships with a poverty qualification. Any restriction, whether it excludes the rich or the poor, must at once lower the standard. There is danger, too, of a revival of the despised servitors and sizars of days happily bygone.

It is in the interest of poor students that the limit of age for scholarships should not be too low, or at any rate that there should be a fair number open without limit of age.

2. *Local Examinations, Joint Board, &c.*

As a member of the joint board I have joined in an opinion in answer to part of this question. The marked success and steady progress which have attended the working of the joint board speak for themselves. I have sometimes thought, but do not speak from experience, that the local examinations would have been even more successful than they have been had they been worked by the two universities conjointly, like those of the joint board.

3. *Secondary Education, correlation with the Universities—generally.*

a. The two chief wants seem to me to be, (1) a better arrangement and correlation as regards "leaving" examinations at schools, and entrance examinations at the universities, and (2) some kind of joint committee or council to consider questions of examinations, &c., common to both.

b. 2. *Specially with regard to Girls.*—I have had now for some time some experience of the management of the education of girls at the university, though not personally of their teaching. I think there is a want of more scholarships to give clever and deserving girls university opportunities.

b. 3. *Technological instruction.*—Strictly speaking, I do not consider *technical* instruction to be part of the duty of a university, which should confine itself to liberal and scientific study. If by *technological* is meant the study of the principles and science and generally of the liberal elements which arise out of or underlie applied and practical arts and industries, I think the universities might go a little further than they have done in the past, in the way of specialisation in these directions, but they should not forsake their own function to usurp those of the technical schools or workshops any more than those of the lawyer's chambers or the hospital.

4. *Teachers of Secondary Schools.*

The vast majority of masters, head and assistant at the public and greater grammar schools, come from universities. I believe that the tendency is for this to become universal. It may be noticed that many schools are showing a preference for having modern languages taught by Englishmen who have been at the university first and then gone abroad, rather than by foreigners. I have no general knowledge of smaller schools, but I have observed a tendency on the part of such schools to seek university men for masters, and of young graduates to accept posts at such schools, pointing I think to a likelihood that the process will spread downwards.

5. *Training of Teachers.*

The universities ought, in my opinion, to provide courses of lectures on the history and theory of education, and also on psychology, approached both from the mental and material side. (Some lectures on psychology are already given in connexion with the physiological school, which might be utilized among others.) They might examine in the same and issue certificates. It ought to be possible for a student of the university, man or woman, intending to be a teacher, to obtain his or her entire qualification without going elsewhere. For this purpose it might be necessary to provide some kind of normal school or classes. The machinery or arrangements of existing training

colleges, day or otherwise, might be utilized. The great difficulty in the way of training lies in the additional cost of time and money, and to lessen this, arrangements should be made enabling an undergraduate, if he so desire, to take his lectures while pursuing his ordinary course, so that it might be possible to obtain a complete qualification with, at the most, one term's extra work. N.B.—Two points should be noted with regard to the average Oxford student to which I think sufficient attention has not been given. The *first* is that the student who passes through the final school of *Literæ humaniores*, devoting as he does a large part of his time and attention to the writings of Plato, especially "The Republic," and of Aristotle, especially "The Ethics" and "Politics," is necessarily brought to study and consider the theory and principles of education so largely treated of in these works, and to study and consider them in the best way, *i.e.*, in connexion with psychology and logic and the laws of thought and of the mind. I may be permitted in this connexion to quote the words of Rousseau, in his "Émile," about the Republic of Plato:—"Voulez-vous prendre une idée de "l'éducation publique? Lisez la *République* de Platon. Ce "n'est point un ouvrage de politique, comme le pensent ceux "qui ne jugent des livres que par leurs titres. C'est le plus beau traité d'éducation qu'on ait jamais fait."

Indeed, "The Republic" and "Ethics" and "Politics" whether in the original *or in English*, ought, in my opinion, to be prescribed as books necessary to be studied by all who seek an Oxford or Cambridge qualification as teachers.

The *second* is that a young man who has passed through an English public school, more particularly if he has been, as the majority of our scholars of colleges have been, a prefect or præpositor under the Arnoldian or similar systems, has had experience in keeping order and maintaining discipline. The same is even true to a less extent, of those who have been in positions of command and responsibility in regard to games and athletic sports in which there is a certain education.

Thus the average Oxford man, more especially the classical student, ought not to require so long an additional training, either in theory or practice, as is sometimes necessary for students elsewhere.

6. *Non-Collegiate System.*

As to the effect in the past, I have no special knowledge enabling me to speak; as to the future, it appears to me obvious that the system may and should be utilized as giving an opportunity for students of training colleges, day or otherwise, or for teachers who may be able to give some time in the course of their career to university studies.

(Signed) T. Herbert Warren, M.A.,
President of Magdalen College, Oxford.

June 11, 1894.

MR. J. WELLS.

College Scholarships and Exhibitions.

I. (*a.*)—What are the effects in schools of the present application of funds and methods of competition?

My experience for answering this question is of three kinds. I was an assistant master for two years (1880–1882), and prepared boys for scholarships; I have examined candidates for the scholarships at Wadham every year since 1882; and I have repeatedly examined schools for the Oxford and Cambridge Joint Board.

I have no doubt at all that the results of the present system in schools are mainly beneficial. Nothing tends more to encourage width of interest and reading than the conviction, which all sixth-form boys now have, that any form of knowledge will help them in a scholarship examination.

I need hardly add that the honour paid to a scholar-elect at his school (he ranks even with the most successful athletes) is a great stimulus to a studious boy.

At the same time, the tradition that scholarships are given for excellence in one subject, and not for a smattering of many, tends very much to discourage cram. Whatever changes are made in scholarship examinations, I hope these two features may be preserved:—

1. The preference for a thorough knowledge of one subject,* rather than for a partial knowledge of several.

2. Variety in the examination, such as is secured by the varying character of college examinations. Were all scholarships assigned by a "joint board," as is sometimes proposed, the examinations must inevitably suffer, and the well-trained ordinary boy's chances would improve, while the real ability of a boy somewhat untrained would be far more likely to be overlooked than at present.

(*b.*) *Are restrictions in eligibility desirable in the interests of poor students or special areas?*

This question I should be disposed to answer in the affirmative, on two grounds.

(1.) We have at present too many scholarships in Oxford given by open competition. The result is that boys of second-rate ability are trained into scholars who cannot really profit by these advantages, and who too often are compelled to join the ranks of underpaid assistant-masters, whether they like it or not.

(2.) Although a considerable (and an increasing) number of poor students come to Oxford, thanks to the new schemes correlating elementary and secondary schools, yet certainly, as a whole, scholarships tend to go to the children of the upper and the middle classes.

* The range of subjects, however, should be extended; *e.g.*, a candidate offering French and German ought to have an equal chance with one offering Latin and Greek.

The changes which seem to me necessary are :—

(1.) Increased strictness in enforcing a test of comparative poverty in all scholars. Probably this must be left largely to the growth of public opinion. Certainly the children of middle-class parents ought not to be at a disadvantage ; it is they who most need scholarships, and who get most real advantage from them.

(2.) It would be exceedingly desirable if a certain proportion of scholarships in each college—say one in five—were compelled to be set aside for those who are being trained for elementary school teachers. These scholarships might be assigned on the result of the Queen's Scholarship examination, or in other ways.

The holders of these scholarships would be expected to work for some fixed period at any rate, after graduating, in an elementary school.

By such an employment of scholarships the present financial difficulty of bringing such teachers to the university might be largely got over, while the scholars-elect would have a chance of associating with their fellows on terms of equality ; this last point is most important.

Before leaving this question I would like to urge one point which seems to me of great importance, *i.e.*, that it is a cruel kindness to bring a poor student to the university, unless he be either of very unusual ability, or training for some definite profession. The temptations of a university are much greater for a poor student than for a boy trained in the ordinary way (the latter has had previously so much more experience and so much greater freedom), and I have known too many instances—I think they are the rule rather than the exception—where the poor student has failed to exert himself at Oxford, so has not done himself real justice, nay, has often done himself positive harm.

University examining agencies.

II.—What is your opinion of the working of the local examinations, joint board, and extension delegacy in relation to Secondary Education ?

Although a delegate of local examinations, I have no practical experience of the working of the system. As to the *Joint Board*, I have no doubt that its results are considerable, in stimulating boys to work, and in guiding their work. Examinations may be easily overdone ; but, as a rule, the school which is not thoroughly examined at intervals is idle. And every schoolmaster will say how much more boys are incited to work by the thought of an outside examiner than if the examination be conducted by the resident staff.

With regard to the extension delegacy, its lecturers can be made most useful by supplementing the ordinary class work of the school. Lectures afford the best of stimulus, though in themselves they are insufficient to give a thorough knowledge of the subject. The extension work has not, however, largely developed on these lines ; but very successful results have been achieved in this way at the Ladies' College at Cheltenham.

Provision of secondary teachers by universities.

IV.—To what extent, in your knowledge, are teachers of secondary schools, of various types, provided by the universities.

(1.) At the great public schools all the masters, of course, are Oxford or Cambridge men.

(2.) This is the case also, to a large and certainly growing extent, in the smaller public schools. Forms and subjects are now taken by university men which 15 years ago were given to non-graduates.

(3.) In preparatory schools, too, of any standing, the number of university men employed is continually increasing.

(4.) In the large class of modern schools, *e.g.*, county schools, only the higher forms, as a rule, are taken by university men, and these by no means exclusively.

Speaking generally, the increase in the number of men reading for honours at the universities, and the higher ideas now general in men's minds as to vocation for holy orders, have tended to add to the numbers of graduates seeking work in schools, and so indirectly to lower salaries.

Training of teachers.

V.—What part ought the universities to take in the training of secondary teachers?

The university man, as a rule, needs far less definite training than one who has not been at a university. For—

(1.) He presumably has the general culture needed.

(2.) If an honours-man, he is exceedingly likely to have at least touched on some of the philosophical subjects which bear on training.

(3.) Above all, his own experience at school, especially if he have been a monitor or prefect, has given him a training, which, if not scientific, is of very real value.

Hence, while it is exceedingly desirable that some definite training on educational theory and methods should be required of all future teachers, it would be well if the university graduate could get this at his own university. He might, in many cases take part (at least) of it during his ordinary degree course. I hope the day-training colleges now established at Oxford and at Cambridge may furnish a means for training those of our graduates who are intending to be teachers in secondary schools. Meantime, the University Extension Delegacy here is making the experiment of providing this kind of training—on a small scale—at the approaching summer meeting.

MISS WILSON.

I. As to poverty.

II. As to locality.

College scholarships and exhibitions.

I. *Poor Students.*—I think it certainly desirable that scholarships should go to those who need them; but there are practical difficulties in the way:—

(1.) If the scholarships are attached to particular schools where the fees are low, it is an inducement to well-to-do parents to send their children to those schools

when some other school would, perhaps, suit them better.

(2.) It is very difficult, where public money is concerned, to make any inquiry into the means of parents.

I am inclined to think competition for college scholarships should be open; that they should not greatly exceed the amount of the tuition fees, and that the authorities of the college should have in their hands a fund from which the scholarships can be supplemented in the case of students otherwise unable to accept them.

Travelling expenses, or cost of board away from home, would often form a ground for such supplementary aid in one case rather than another.

II. *Area*.—Restrictions as to area work capriciously.

For instance, a student lately presented herself to me, having won a scholarship of some value, tenable at Owen's College, given in a neighbouring town, for the greatest number of successes in the science and art examinations,

The subjects on which she had obtained this scholarship were: drawing (four branches), physiology, and hygiene. Of course these subjects in no way qualified her to enter on a university course, and her first year at college has been largely wasted in consequence. If the donor had placed the scholarship in the hands of the college the money would in this case have been better spent. I pointed out to the secretary of the institute where the scholarship was given that she was ill-prepared for college, and his reply was, that he "regretted they had no better candidate."

The case given above is an instance of want of correlation between a local educational body and a university college.

Other cases occur in connexion with the county councils. We have four students holding county-council scholarships, and one has left at the end of two years. All these have squared the requirements of their scholarships to those of a B.A. course (London or Victoria), with more or less difficulty. The "geography" imposed on the holder of a commercial scholarship is simply regarded as a vexatious addition to those subjects which the student has really at heart. She fulfils the condition, as she would wear black if that were required of her. More of these students have come to college with a view of fitting themselves for teaching—not for commercial or technical pursuits. They are good students, and if the county councils are satisfied we have no reason to complain. But the tinkering at restrictions and conditions is unpleasant. The county councils seems to act without reference to the schemes of either colleges or schools.

University examining agencies.

2. I am inclined to think that scholarships given on such examination as the London Matriculation, the Victoria Preliminary, and the Oxford and Cambridge Locals, are very useful.

The idea of proceeding to college is sometimes in this way brought before the mind of a pupil who otherwise might not have thought of it.

Such examinations as are held locally serve as a wide net, and capture young people of merit who would not be likely to sit for open scholarships at a university or college, simply because their parents or teachers might not know of them, or might be unable to estimate the chance of success of one candidate compared with others.

Correlation of university and Secondary Education.

3. I have said a good deal under 1, that might come under this head.

b. (2.) For girls. I think it good some scholarship should be reserved for girls, as they have seldom had the long training in Latin and mathematics that is usual with boys.

But as a rule I see no reason why all scholarships should not be open to girls as well as boys.

For correlation as to subjects taught between schools and colleges one is inclined to say there is not any.

In any good school higher work is being done than in the lower classes of a university. This seems to be inevitable when the age is different. A backward youth of 17 or more cannot be sent to school.

Provision of secondary teachers by the university.

4. I propose to answer this question fully: I give the number of women students of Owens College, who have obtained a Victoria University degree, and their occupation at present.

The above list may be classified—

Teaching in	High Schools	5	
	Endowed Schools	1	
	"Class" Schools	2	
	Cape Colony	1	
	Private Schools	8	
	Lecturers in Owens College	1	
	Under School Board	2	
	Private post	1	
			21
Not teaching mainly.	Secretaries	2	
	Married	2	
	At home	3	
	At college	1	
			8
			29

Training of teachers.

5. Training will never be generally sought by students of good quality, unless it is recognised by the universities and unless men of first-rate university rank take part in it.

I do not mean that no teacher should be trained who does not take a degree, but I mean that the subject of education must be recognised as worth the study of men and women of good ability if it is to be generally studied.

6. I suppose a non-resident college like Owens College comes under the term "non-collegiate"?

The effect of such colleges is to bring a constantly increasing number of young people under university influence, many of them whose homes are comparatively poor, and who look forward as a matter of course to earning their living. The difficulty of finding other occupation than teaching for educated women of a remunerative nature is great; and it is difficult even for graduates to obtain posts in good schools at once.

The good effects—the widening of interests—the breaking down of social barriers—the raising of the intellectual standard generally—are more widely spread each year.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY LOCAL EXAMINATIONS DELEGACY.

Clarendon Building, Oxford,
July 16, 1894.

SIR,

I AM directed by the delegates of local examinations, Oxford, to return the following answers to the questions of the Royal Commissioners on Secondary Education contained in your letter of May 4th, 1894, and to request you to express to the Commissioners the willingness of the Delegacy to assist the commission with the results of the Delegacy's experience in any way which the Commissioners may think useful.

The first examination was held in the week beginning June 21, 1858.

The circumstances under which the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge were induced to initiate the system of Local Examinations are set forth in a book which was published early in 1858 under the title, "some account of the origin and objects " of the new Oxford Examinations for the title of associate in " arts and certificates for the year 1858" by T. D. Acland, Esq., (now Sir Thomas Dyke Acland), for many years a delegate of Local Examinations, from which the following extract is taken (pp. viii, ix):—

"On the 18th of June last the University of Oxford passed a statute, establishing two examinations for 'those who are not members of the University,' one for youths 'under 18,' another for boys 'under 15.'

"The convocation created a delegacy (or commission) with legislative and executive powers for the special purposes defined by the statute; these powers are to expire in three years, and convocation must then legislate again.

"In the meantime it has devolved on the Delegacy to frame a scheme of examination, to appoint examiners, to fix the scale of fees, and to arrangeall other details.

"The examination will be held at various centres at the same time; the places to be fixed by the delegates as they may deem expedient. They will require the formation of a proper

committee which will undertake to conduct the local details, and to provide for all expenses incident to a local examination.

"The examinations are open to all persons of whatever social rank or religious denomination; age and non-matriculation are the only limits.

"Candidates, whose parents do not formerly object, will be examined in the rudiments of faith and religion. Those whose parents do object will simply omit this part of the examination, and there will be no substitute for it.

"All must satisfy the examiners that they have mastered the elements of a plain English education, after which they are allowed a wide latitude in the selection of subjects of study.

"Boys under 15, who succeed in the lower examination, will obtain a certificate. Youths under 18, who pass the higher, will receive the title of associate in arts. They will be arranged in divisions, partly in order of merit, partly in alphabetical order.

"The following pages will show some of the facts laid before the university to induce it to take steps thus shortly described; they will prove that the question presented itself in a form ripe for decision, and give some evidence of the care with which the details have been wrought out since the statute was passed. They will also prove the desire that the views of the sister university should be consulted. In point of fact, as is apparent from the letters of the two Vice-Chancellors, the subject was brought before both universities nearly at the same time."

The delegates have continued to act on the same principles as those which were formulated at the outset, with such modifications as have been suggested by experience. Application from a local committee must still precede the appointment of a local centre, the initiative thus resting with the local authorities.

The delegates have from time to time obtained powers:—

1. To admit girls to the examinations, (this was first done in 1870.)
2. To raise the age for honours by one year, *i.e.*, to 19 for senior candidates, 16 for juniors.
3. To remove all limitations of age for either examination, subject to the condition that honours could not be gained by candidates above the prescribed ages.

   (This extension has proved of great value. Whole classes can now be entered for examination without distinction of age, and the schools avail themselves of this privilege to an increasing extent.)

The delegates have also recently been authorised to hold in 1895 a lower examination in which honours will be confined to candidates under 14 years of age; and after the long vacation the university will be asked to pass a statute giving the delegates power to continue this in future years. The examination is intended to meet the needs.

(1.) Of lower forms in the schools which already avail themselves of the delegates' examinations.

(2.) In schools in which, by reason of the pupils leaving early, the existing examinations are of somewhat too high a standard for the majority of the pupils.

The examinations conducted by the Delegacy are thus framed to test the work of all but the lower forms in the bulk of secondary schools. The certificates given to successful candidates are accepted by various professional bodies as exempting from the whole or part of their entrance examinations. These tend naturally to be twofold in their character, (1) to test general education (2) to ascertain whether candidates for entrance into the various professions have acquired adequate proficiency in studies directly useful for these professions. The standard required under the first head is not the same in all professions, but the examinations conducted by the Delegacy are sufficiently elastic to meet any requirements of this kind. Under the second head the requirements necessarily vary, but the Delegacy is able to supply a sufficient test for most of them.

Scholarships and prizes are also awarded by means of the local examinations. A list of those advertised by the authority of the awarding bodies is given in the Appendix. Others are offered and bestowed privately. The delegates are frequently consulted by the heads of public schools with respect to an offer of a scholarship to a deserving candidate.

In the appointment of examiners the delegates have always deemed it a matter of vital importance to secure the services of gaduates who have had experience of school teaching and not merely of the training of undergraduates. On the staff of examiners are many retired schoolmasters and country clergymen, acquainted with the needs and capabilities of secondary schools.

In the selection of the subjects for examination the delegates have attempted to indicate the directions in which the curriculum of schools may be developed with advantage, and have always given careful consideration to any representations made to them by persons of experience in education. They have introduced fresh subjects, whenever the interests of education made it seem desirable, and have continued to examine in them, although very few candidates avail themselves of the opportunity of offering them. Some of the branches of natural science are, *e.g.*, taken by a very small percentage.

The introduction of the so-called "commercial subjects" and the experimental institution of an examination for commercial certificates revealed the fact that schools were not providing the necessary instruction in any of these subjects except book-keeping, and the delegates resolved not to continue such an examination, but to retain book-keeping in the list of subjects for the local examination. A marked improvement in the candidates' exercises in this subject has been observed.

In 1877 the delegates received power to make a great extension of their system, by undertaking to examine and inspect schools, whether or not the pupils were candidates for the certificates of the local examinations properly so called. The number of schools so examined in 1893 was 58, independently of the number reported on after examination by the Gloucester and Bristol Diocesan Board.

In most of these schools the upper forms are examined on the papers of the local examination proper, senior or junior, with or without a few other papers specially set. Lower forms may be examined either (1) by means of easier papers specially set and looked over by the examiner appointed by the Delegacy, or (2) by means of papers marked by the masters and submitted to the examiner of the Delegacy who inspects and reports on them, or (3) *viva voce*. The delegates allow any combination of these methods which the circumstances of each school may require. They usually find that the authorities of schools desire to have some *viva voce* examination at least, and they are of opinion that this is a valuable test of the general condition of schools, especially of its lowest forms, but of little use for discriminating between individual pupils.

A list of the schools examined in the year 1893 is given in the report to convocation, a copy of which is sent herewith for the information of the Commissioners.

Since 1877 the delegates have also been charged with the duty of arranging for and conducting the examination of women. They began by organising a system of examinations, both pass and honour; but the gradual admission of women to all the schools of the university, which has been granted in nearly every instance after representations from the Delegacy, has superseded all the honour examinations of the Delegacy except that in modern languages. Of these two pass examinations the first serves mainly as a preliminary examination for women who are intending to follow some university course, but do not take both the classical languages. The most important function of the second, now known as the higher local examination, is to serve as a final examination for women who do not attempt a university course, but it also furnishes equivalents for some parts of the university pass examinations.

I am, &c.

H. T. GERRANS,

Secretary to the Delegacy.

The Hon. W. N. Bruce,
6, Old Palace Yard, S.W.

TABLE showing the NUMBER of SENIOR CANDIDATES examined in the years 1858–1867 and 1890–1893 and the number who obtained certificates.

Senior Candidates.

Year.	Total Number Examined.		Total Number Passed.	
	Boys.	Girls.*	Boys.	Girls.*
1858 - -	401	—	150	—
1859 - -	299	—	151	—
1860 - -	291	—	152	—
1861 - -	308	—	184	—
1862 - -	289	—	155	—
1863 - -	267	—	157	—
1864 - -	269	—	181	—
1865 - -	301	—	209	—
1866 - -	312	—	203	—
1867 - -	347	—	252	—
1890 - -	354	609	289	523
1891 - -	365	636	268	432
1892 - -	379	714	293	505
1893 - -	372	826	259	568

* Girls were first admitted to the examinations in 1870.

TABLE showing the NUMBER of JUNIOR CANDIDATES examined in the years 1858–1867 and 1890–1893 and the number who obtained certificates.

Junior Candidates.

Year.	Total Number Examined.		Total Number Passed.	
	Boys.	Girls.*	Boys.	Girls.*
1858 - -	750	—	280	—
1859 - -	597	—	332	—
1860 - -	573	—	346	—
1861 - -	627	—	415	—
1862 - -	732	—	430	—
1863 - -	762	—	487	—
1864 - -	758	—	519	—
1865 - -	920	—	561	—
1866 - -	892	—	569	—
1867 - -	1,018	—	663	—
1890 - -	1,366	817	987	678
1891 - -	1,454	888	1,002	697
1892 - -	1,445	966	971	758
1893 - -	1,505	1,034	1,117	846

* Girls were first admitted to the examinations in 1870.

University of Cambridge.—Local Examinations and Lectures Syndicate.

Syndicate Buildings, Cambridge,
June 28, 1894.

Sir,

I am instructed by the Cambridge University Local Examinations and Lectures Syndicate to reply as follows to the enquiries addressed to them by the Royal Commissioners on Secondary Education.

Local Examinations.—First, as regards the growth of the system of local examinations and its effect on Secondary Education. In June 1857, the University of Oxford established annual examinations for persons not members of the university, the general plan of these examinations, and many of the details, being due to Sir T. D. Acland and the present Bishop of London.

In 1858 the University of Cambridge adopted a similar scheme of external examinations, and their first examination was held in December of the same year at eight centres; 73 senior boys and 297 junior boys entered for this examination. Girls were admitted to the Cambridge examinations in 1865; the number of candidates entering in that year being as follows:—senior boys 232, senior girls 79, junior boys 998, junior girls 51. The higher local examinations for students above the age of eighteen years (since reduced to seventeen and a half years) were first held in 1869. These examinations were in the first instance open to women only; they were thrown open to men in 1875, but the number of men presenting themselves as candidates has been very small. A special examination for commercial certificates was instituted in 1888. In 1893 the total number of candidates entering for the above examinations was as follows:—senior boys 601, senior girls 1,311, junior boys 5085, junior girls 2,419; higher local 1,020 (of whom only 9 were men); examination for commercial certificates 8. The senior and junior examinations were held at 177 centres for boys, and 159 for girls. Of these centres, 12 were in the Colonies, the total number of colonial candidates being 570.

The main object of those who promoted the local examinations was to improve the state of education in the schools lying between the elementary schools and the great public schools. It was felt that much good would be done by establishing an efficient external test by which the merit of both schools and scholars might be judged; and the syndicate are satisfied that highly beneficial effects have, as a matter of fact, been produced by the local examinations upon the schools brought under their influence. No doubt there is much that remains unsatisfactory in the state of Secondary Education in England; and the reports of the examiners appointed by the Syndicate are often discouraging. Still the high character of the work sent in by the pupils at many of the schools which regularly prepare

candidates, and the gradual rise which has on the whole taken place in the difficulty of the examinations, afford a satisfactory evidence of progress. The Syndicate believe that this progress may fairly be attributed in a considerable degree to the local examinations themselves.

The Syndicate felt, almost from the outset, that in addition to the examination of individual boys and girls by means of the local examinations it was desirable to establish a system of inspection which should deal with each school as a whole. Such inspection has, therefore been undertaken by the Syndicate since 1862, and some details of their work in this respect will be given below. At the same time, the Syndicate are convinced that an examination common to pupils from schools in all parts of the country fulfils a function of great importance, and supplies a test of efficiency which cannot be supplied by inspection alone. The wide competition thus introduced, and the publicity and identity of the standard serve to determine the position of each school relatively to others. Deficiencies, moreover, are brought to light which may escape notice then the schools are considered singly, and an additional stimulus is applied. It is sometimes feared that the special preparation of the pupils selected to be sent in for such an examination may absorb too much of the attention of the teaching staff of the school, and this is no doubt in some cases a real danger. The Syndicate, however, believe that in the case of schools which regularly send in candidates this danger is counteracted by the consideration that although the special preparation for the local examinations is confined to certain classes, there will be no constant supply of suitable material for that preparation to take effect upon, unless the teaching is thoroughly sound throughout the school. At some large and efficient schools it is the practice to send whole forms in for the local examinations, although it may be known that certain of the boys and girls have little chance of success. There is much to be said for this system, if it be combined with the inspection of that part of the school which is not specially prepared for any outside examination.

There are grounds for believing that, apart from their more direct effects, the examinations have assisted in improving the character of the teaching in schools by enabling a better selection of assistant teachers to be made. There can be no doubt that twenty or thirty years ago the assistant teachers in many secondary schools were very inadequately prepared for their work. They had often been subjected to no adequate test, and it was not easy to judge of their qualifications. The examinations instituted by the Syndicate and other similar examinations now afford a test by which a better estimate may be formed of the previous training of those who seek to engage in the work of tuition without having passed through a university course. A further point to which attention may be called is the influence which the examinations have exerted in discouraging the use of

bad text-books. At first the books used by many of the schools were found to be surprisingly bad, and the examiners still find it necessary to call attention from time to time to the fact that inferior text-books are used in the preparation of some of the candidates. On the whole, however, there has been a marked improvement in this respect, and the Syndicate regard this improvement as one of the most beneficial results of the examinations.

The policy of the Syndicate has increasingly been to give as free a scope as possible to the development of schools belonging to different types, whilst at the same time indicating a suitable curriculum of study for each type. The range of subjects included in the examinations has in this way been gradually widened, and the details of the syllabus have from time to time been modified with the object of leaving the schools greater freedom. Thus, in the papers of questions set in languages an increasingly important position has come to be assigned to unprepared translation; and besides being allowed a choice between alternative authors in the various languages, candidates are permitted in certain cases to confine themselves altogether to unprepared translation in lieu of set books. It should be added that such competition as exists between the universities in respect of their local examinations has not resulted in any lowering of the standard required, whilst it has had the advantage of still further increasing the opportunity afforded to schools of selecting the precise kind of examination best suited to their individual circumstances.

The Syndicate endeavour to secure in their body of examiners a combination of those who are engaged in university teaching and those who are more immediately conversant with the actual state of education in secondary schools. Hence it will be found that a considerable proportion of the examiners appointed by the Syndicate have been actual teachers in schools, or are in direct and continuous contact with school work by means of the examination and personal inspection of individual schools which they undertake on behalf of the Syndicate. All the papers of questions are discussed at meetings of examiners, and are thus brought under the consideration of critics who are directly acquainted with the actualities of Secondary Education. The result is a beneficial combination of direction on the part of the universities with a real appreciation of the practical needs of schools.

Reference has already been made to the establishment of centres for the local examinations in the Colonies. The Syndicate have received frequent evidence from those who are interested in education in the Colonies of the beneficial effects which have thereby been produced; and special value is found to be attached to the opportunity afforded to colonial schools of comparing their results with those of schools in England. It may be added that both in the Colonies and at home the local examinations

have in various ways been utilised for the award of scholarships. In Ceylon, important scholarships are annually adjudged in this way under the control of the director of public instruction; and in England the Syndicate have been enabled by the generosity of individuals and of the governing bodies of some public schools and colleges to award scholarships on the results of the local examinations, by the aid of which boys have entered the large public schools and the universities respectively. Scholarships tenable at Girton College or at Newnham College have similarly been awarded to girls. The Syndicate have reason to believe that the results of these awards have in general been highly satisfactory; and this is in their opinion largely due to the wide area of selection from which candidates have been drawn.

I am sending copies of the regulations issued by the Syndicate, together with class lists, reports, &c., in order that the commissioners may be fully informed of the general character of the examinations conducted by the Syndicate. I also send a list, specially drawn up for the information of the Commissioners, showing the schools that prepared candidates for the junior and senior examinations in December 1893, and the number of candidates sent in by each school. The schools are arranged under the various centres of examination. Stastistics are added, giving approximately the number of schools falling under each of the following heads, and the number of candidates sent in by each class of school:—Endowed schools; schools administered by a governing body of a representative or public character, but not endowed; higher grade elementary schools; and private schools. The Syndicate will be happy to prepare further statistics bearing on any particular point in regard to which the Commissioners may desire information.

Inspection of schools by the Syndicate.—As already stated, the Syndicate undertake the separate inspection and examination of individual schools in addition to the local examinations. The method adapted is to appoint an examiner or examiners to conduct an inspection or examination according to a schedule, drawn up by the school authorities, showing the work prepared by the school. The Syndicate are anxious not to interfere unduly with the freedom of each school to develope its work according to its own ideal; hence, the utmost freedom is allowed in the preparation of these schedules, but the examiner, in his report, which is addressed to the Syndicate, may deal not merely with the actual attainments of the pupils in the subjects presented for examination, but also with any points directly or indirectly affecting the efficiency of the school, such as the curriculum adapted and the manner in which it is carried out, the staff of teachers, and the school buildings. A copy of the report is forwarded to the authorities of the school with directions that, if it is published, in must be given *in extenso*. As a rule, in the case of schools regularly examined in this way by the Syndicate, the same examiner is appointed for two or

three years in succession, a change being then made. By this degree of continuity the examiner is able to estimate the extent to which the school is making progress, and by the added experience which the examination in successive years affords him he is able to give greater assistance in pointing out weak spots. At the same time, the examination does not fall into a groove, as might happen if the same examiner took the work for an indefinite period. The system adopted is extremely elastic, and the nature of the inspection varies greatly in different cases. Sometimes the examiner pays a visit of several days to the school and is occupied in inspecting its general working, in the oral examination of classes, in observing the manner in which instruction is giving by the teachers, and in setting papers in a few subjects at his discretion: by a combination of some or all of these methods he obtains the material for a report on the general state of the school. In other cases, while the lower forms are examined orally, papers are set to the higher forms in all subjects, and marks are sent in by which the award of prizes and scholarships is determined. The papers of questions are set by the examiners; but the answers are sometimes looked over in the first instance by the masters or mistresses of the school, their marking being subject to the revision of the examiner. The report always shows to what extent, if any, the last-named method has been adopted. A system which often works well is a combination of an individual inspection with the local examinations, the higher forms alone taking the latter, while the lower forms are inspected and examined separately. The results of the local examination, so far as the school in question is concerned, are then communicated to the examiner, so that in his report he can sum up in regard to the condition of the whole school.

Ninety-seven schools, containing approximately 13,500 pupils, were inspected and examined by the Syndicate in 1893; and I enclose a list of all the schools thus individully examined by the Syndicate during the last five years. The examination of individual schools (unaccompanied, however, by personal inspection) has been extended to the Colonies; and, independently of the local examinations, the Syndicate now examine large schools in Barbados, Jamaica, Mauritius, and Trinidad. They also conduct special examinations for Government scholarships in Barbados and in the Straits Settlements; and during the last few years they have conducted scholarship examinations for various county councils.

In carrying out the work entrusted to them by the university, the Syndicate are greatly helped, both in the local examinations and in the inspection and examination of individual schools, by the opportunities afforded to them of securing the services of experienced examiners during the university vacations, as and when they are required. The number of examiners employed last year by the Syndicate independently of the presiding

examiners at the different centres of examination, was 146; and their services were obtained at a much smaller cost to the schools than would have been incurred by a system of permanent examiners with no other employment.

Leaving Examination in Secondary Schools.—As regards the question of a leaving examination in secondary schools, I am directed to say that an Abiturienten-Examen such as exists in Germany appears to the Syndicate to be suited only to a system of schools whose curriculum is minutely regulated by the State, and with the general efficiency of which the State is already satisfied. It is difficult to see how a similar system could be applied to English schools, with their great variety of management and curriculum. Important functions served by the Abiturienten-Examen in Germany are, however, served in England by existing examinations, as, for example, the examinations conducted by the Oxford and Cambridge schools examination board, the matriculation examination of the university of London, and the higher, senior, and junior local examinations of Oxford and Cambridge. These examinations are practically leaving examinations for the students of different schools, according to their grade; and, in the opinion of the Syndicate, a varied system of this kind is best adapted to the circumstances of England.

With regard to the advantages which the leaving examination should carry, it again seems impossible to adopt a scheme quite similar to that of Germany, where, as the Syndicate understand, the gymnasial leaving examination, conducted by the State, besides entitling those who have passed it to serve for a reduced period in the army, and qualifying them for various posts in the public service, is the only examination which affords admission to the universities, and hence to the learned professions. In England the preliminary requirements of the universities and of the professions are determined not by the State, but by the universities themselves, by the General Medical Council, and other similar bodies; and these requirements naturally vary in different cases, so that they can best be satisfied by means of some variety in the examination system. The examinations above referred to, which are practically used already as leaving examinations, afford variety and carry varying advantages. This will be illustrated by the list which I enclose, giving particulars of some of the advantages which are conferred under various conditions by the certificates of the Cambridge local examinations. The Syndicate would be glad to see this list further extended, and they would be prepared to consider any modifications or developments of their examinations which would assist in rendering such an extension possible. It should be added that, besides possessing advantages which can thus be definitely specified, the certificates granted by the Syndicate are calculated to benefit their holders when they are candidates for

positions in banks, mercantile houses, &c. Some such certificates are, moreover, becoming almost indispensable for those who seek to enter the teaching profession without having passed through a university career.

Inspection and Examination of Secondary Schools.—The Syndicate are of opinion that both inspection and examination are desirable in the case of endowed and public schools, and also in the case of proprietary and private schools; but in the interest of variety and of progress, they consider it undesirable that such inspection and examination should be placed under the sole direction of any one authority. Should it be deemed advisable to enforce any system of inspection, the Syndicate are of opinion that the plan least open to objection would be to require all schools to submit themselves to inspection and examination by one or other of certain responsible bodies recognised for this purpose by the Government.

I am, &c.
J. N. KEYNES,
Secretary for Examinations
to the Local Examinations and
Lectures Syndicate.

To the Hon. W. N. Bruce,
Royal Commission on Secondary Education,
6, Old Palace Yard, London, S.W.

SCHOOLS which sent in CANDIDATES for the Cambridge Junior and Senior Local Examinations in December 1893.

SUMMARY* (for centres in England and Wales).

BOYS' SCHOOLS.

Number of Schools.	——	Number of Junior Candidates.	Number of Senior Candidates.	Total number of Candidates.
205	Endowed Schools -	2,117	233	2,350
61	Other Public Schools† -	1,125	89	1,214
9	Higher Grade Elementary Schools.	45	0	45
338	Private Schools -	1,414	122	1,536

* The figures which follow must not be regarded as more than approximate, as in the case of certain schools there was some doubt as to their proper classification.

† Schools administered by a governing body of a representative or public character, but not endowed.

GIRLS' SCHOOLS.

Number of Schools.	—	Number of Junior Candidates.	Number of Senior Candidates.	Total number of Candidates.
54	Endowed Schools -	472	187	659
100	Other Public Schools*-	507	317	824
8	Higher Grade Elementary Schools.	42	3	45
720	Private Schools -	1,185	689	1,874

The remaining candidates examined in England and Wales, namely, 65 junior boys, 17 senior boys, 131 junior girls, 85 senior girls, were prepared for examination by private tuition.

In addition to the above, 66 Colonial schools (40 for boys, 26 for girls) sent in 299 junior boys, 134 senior boys, 76 junior girls, and 27 senior girls; and there were 35 Colonial candidates prepared for examination by private tuition.

LIST of some of the PUBLIC BODIES by which the Cambridge Local Examination Certificates are recognised, and of the advantages conferred.

University of Cambridge.—(A.) The certificate of the higher local examination excuses the holder from Part I. of the previous examination, if it includes religious knowledge, Latin, and Greek; from Part II., if it includes religious knowledge or logic, and arithmetic, Euclid, and algebra; from the additional subjects for candidates for honours, if it includes either statics, dynamics, and astronomy, or French or German.

(B.) The honour certificate of the higher local examination admits members of Girton and Newnham Colleges to the tripos examinations of the university, if it includes languages and mathematics.

(C.) The certificate of the senior local examination exempts the holder from Part I. of the previous examination, if the candidate has passed in religious knowledge, including the original Greek of the Gospel, and also has either passed in higher Latin and Greek, or attained a certain standard intermediate between the ordinary pass standard and that of distinction in ordinary Latin and Greek; from Part II., if the candidate has attained a certain standard intermediate between the ordinary pass standard and that of distinction in religious knowledge or logic, in

* Schools administered by a governing body of a representative or public character, but not endowed.

Euclid, and in algebra; from the additional subjects for candidates for honours, if the candidate has attained a certain standard intermediate between the ordinary pass standard and that of distinction either in applied mathematics, or in French, or in German.

(D.) Any certificate of the higher local examination enables a student, if a man, to become a candidate for the degree of Bachelor of Music, or, if a woman, to enter the examination for such candidates.

(E.) A senior certificate enables a student to become a candidate for the degree of Bachelor of Music, or, if a woman, to enter the examination for such candidates, if the student passes in English, a classical or modern language, Euclid and algebra.

The Education Department.—The education code for day schools (1894–5) sanctions the recognition as assistant teachers of persons who have passed the senior or the higher local examination.

The Incorporated Law Society.—Persons who have obtained the higher, the senior, or the junior certificate are excused the preliminary examination before entering into articles of clerkship with solicitors.

The General Medical Council.—The higher, the senior, or the junior certificate qualifies the holder for registration as a medical or a dental student, if it includes English, Latin, Euclid (Books I.–III.), algebra, and one of the following:—Greek, French, German, logic.

The Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons.—The higher certificate, or the senior certificate (if it includes Latin and mathematics), or the junior certificate (if it includes Latin, mathematics, and one of the following: Greek, French, German) qualifies for admission to the professional examination.

The Institution of Civil Engineers.—The higher, the senior, or the junior certificate qualifies the holder for admission as a student, if it includes English subjects, arithmetic, algebra, Euclid (Books I–III.) or trigonometry, one classical or modern foreign language, one of certain specified subjects in natural science.

The Institute of Chartered Accountants.—The senior or the junior certificate exempts from the preliminary examination under certain conditions.

The Pharmaceutical Society of Great Britain.—The higher, the senior, or the junior certificate exempts from the first examination, if it includes Latin, arithmetic, and English.

The Institute of Journalists.—The senior certificate exempts from the examination for membership, except in the subject of law. The junior certificate exempts from the examination for pupil-associateship.

Trinity College, London.—The senior or the junior certificate exempts the holder from the matriculation examination.

Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board.

Sir, June 25, 1894.

We are directed by the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board to send you the accompanying statement, giving (1) information relating to the origin and growth of the system of examinations conducted by the board; (2) the views of the board on the questions sent to it by the Commission in your letter of May 4, 1894; together with (3) the current regulations and other papers published by the board.

We are, &c.

E. J. Gross,
P. E. Matheson,
Secretaries to the Board.

To the Secretary of the Royal Commission
on Secondary Education.

History of the Board and its Examiners.

Foundation. The board was constituted in October, 1873, by an agreement between a delegacy appointed by the University of Oxford and a syndicate appointed by the University of Cambridge.

Its objects were—

Objects. 1. The inspection* and examination of schools "which have a "regularly constituted governing body, or which prepare a fair "proportion of their boys for the universities," *i.e.*, of schools giving an education of the first grade.

2. The granting of certificates upon examinations held by the board, either in connexion with a general school examination or not, which certificates should exempt their holders, on certain conditions, (*a*) from the university examinations, responsions and the previous examination, (*b*) from other examinations within or without the university.†

Constitution. The constitution of the board, and the main principles of its action, have remained unchanged during the twenty years of its existence.

Finance. The board is self-supporting: its expenses are covered by the fees of candidates and the charges for school examinations.

Conduct of examinations. 1. All examiners who take part in the examinations are appointed by the board, and all the papers by which the examinations are conducted are first composed by the examiners, and afterwards revised by committees appointed by the board.

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* For the sense in which this word is used by the Board *see* p. 281.
† Appendix III.

2. The grant of a "pass" or "distinction," in the case of candidates for certificates, is made in each subject by a Committee of Awarders, who have before them the papers of all candidates in the subject, and the marks given for their work by the examiners.

3. In general the same examiner is appointed for two years to the same school.

4. When a school is examined one examiner at least must visit the school.

These arrangements are intended to secure (1) the maintenance of a proper and unfluctuating standard; (2) the efficient control both of individual examiners and of the conduct of the examinations; 3) continuity in the work of the Board; (4) the maintenance of personal relations between the Board and the schools examined.

Extension of work.

While these principles have been steadily maintained, the work of the board has been considerably extended not only through the increase in the number of schools and candidates examined, but also through—

I. By new examinations.

1. The opening of the higher certificate examinations to girls, and the extension of the board examinations generally to girls' schools, in 1878.

2. The institution of an examination for lower certificates, intended for candidates of about sixteen years of age, in 1883.

3. The institution of an examination for commercial certificates, in 1888.

The two last examinations were instituted in response to appeals made by the authorities of schools already examined by the board.

II. By growth in numbers of candidates for certificates, and numbers of schools examined.

The accompanying tables (pp. 284–287 foll.) will show the growth of the work of the board in regard to (1) number of schools examined; (2) number of candidates for certificates.

III. Relations with various educational and other bodies.

Besides the work exhibited in these tables, the board has from time to time undertaken other duties coming within the sphere of a body concerned with education of the first grade, *e.g.*,

1. It has made arrangements for the award of scholarships through its higher certificate examination for the following colleges and corporations, &c.—Girton College, Newnham College, Somerville Hall, Bedford College, the Clothworkers' Company, the Surrey County Council, Sheffield Town Council.

2. It has nominated examiners annually for the Huish exhibitions, open to candidates from certain schools in the West of England.

3. It has examined the work of those holders of leaving certificates granted by the Scotch education department who desire to be exempted from responsions or the previous examination.

Relation to school studies.

The work of the board, as was said above, has two sides: (1) general inspection and examination of schools, (2) examination of individual candidates for certificates. In both these departments of its work the object of the board has been (1) to adapt its examinations as far as possible to the requirements of school teaching, (2) to maintain a high and liberal standard of education.

The arrangements for securing uniformity of standard have been mentioned already.

Elasticity.

Elasticity is provided for (1) in the case of the certificate examinations, by (*a*) the variety of subjects offered to the candidate's choice, (*b*) the option given of selecting a book or period alternative to those prescribed in the regulations; (2) in the case of school examinations the board provides examination by means of papers, or orally, in any subjects forming part of the course of a school of the highest grade.

Standard.

The regulations for the higher certificate examination, which is the chief examination of the board, were drawn up on a consideration of what may reasonably be expected of the highest form of a first-grade school. It was considered essential in all cases to require (1) a fairly wide range in elementary knowledge, *i.e.*, not to grant a certificate on purely linguistic or purely scientific grounds, but to require a combination of both (*see* Reg. p. 288); (2) something more than mere book knowledge; *e.g.*, unprepared translation is required in all languages, and an experimental knowledge is required in the branches of natural science.

Extent school examinations.

A few schools are examined throughout by the board. More frequently several forms are examined, *e.g.*, the upper half of the school. In some cases the examination extends only to the highest form or to the candidates for higher certificates. Often a written examination of part of the school is combined with an oral examination of the rest, or part of the rest. In this connexion it may be remarked that even in schools were only the highest form is examined, the strict requirement of a knowledge of the elementary parts of each subject enables the board to form a fair conclusion as to the grounding given in the lower forms.

Reports and communications with schools.

After each examination, a report is sent to the governing body of the school examined, and the board publishes annually a general report on the work done in the certificate examinations. Each school examiner is furnished with an abstract of the report made by his predecessor, and a copy of all such abstracts is sent to every member of the board.

The board has been in communication with the authorities of most of the first-grade schools of the country. From the first, the board has invited and received criticisms upon its work from individual headmasters and headmistresses, and on several occasions its representatives have held conferences with representatives of the Headmasters' Conference, the Council of the

Girls' Public Day School Company, and the Educational Committee of the London Chamber of Commerce. In these ways it has endeavoured to adjust its examinations to the requirements of the schools examined under its authority, while maintaining its standard and keeping its examinations in due relation with university studies. Its success, so far as it has been achieved, has been due to (1) the maintenance of free communication between the board (and, through it, the universities) and the schools; (2) the fact that the board has been able to secure the services of some of the ablest members of the universities, many of them men of experience in school teaching; (3) the fact that its examiners have not been "professional" examiners, *i.e.*, not men who make examination their whole business, but generally men engaged for a large proportion of their time in the teaching or administrative work of the universities; (4) the cordial co-operation of the representatives of the two universities on the board, which has helped to give weight and liberality to its action.

The Effect of the Examinations of the Board upon Secondary Education.

The chief effects have been—

1. *General.*—They have brought a large and increasing number of secondary schools of the highest grade under the influence of an external standard and into contact with university studies, while reserving to them their freedom of teaching. They have thus afforded:—

(1.) A satisfactory test of school teaching (which has been found specially valuable by the small schools);

(2.) A very useful aid to school teaching, both by giving direction and definiteness to study, and by correcting special faults and suggesting improved methods. The examiners of the board agree in noticing that faults to which attention has been called in their reports tend to disappear in subsequent examinations.

(3.) A stimulus to higher work, especially through the grant of "distinction" in the certificate examinations.

2. *Special.*—They have exercised a very marked influence in the following ways:—

(1.) Advancing the intelligent study of languages, ancient and modern, by the requirement of unprepared translation. The improvement in unprepared translation, especially in Latin and Greek, is one of the most striking results of the examination.

(2.) Extending the teaching of modern languages (for growth of numbers, *see* Statistics, pp. 284–287 foll.).

(3.) Raising the standard of teaching in history, and in a less degree in geography (by requiring a knowlege of

geography for distinction in history, and by the character of the geography papers set in the lower certificate and commercial certificate examinations).

(4.) Promoting thoroughness and accuracy of teaching in mathematics. The greatest advance of late years has been in statics and dynamics, but during the 20 years of the board's history, there has been a great advance in mathematics generally.

(5.) Raising the general standard of written work in regard to style and accuracy.

All these effects have been the more wide-reaching, because the examinations of the board have in most cases dealt not merely with isolated units, but with whole classes; they have, therefore, thrown light not merely on the comparative merits of candidates, but on the methods and results of class teaching.

Inspection of Schools.

"Inspection," in the technical sense used by the board, has meant (*see* Appendix II.) inspection by examiners, appointed by the board, of answers to papers set by them, and of marks assigned to these answers by masters at the schools on a scale fixed by the examiners. This has been found useful, especially in the case of lower forms, as a test of the general attainments of a form. This method of inspection is never applied to work done for the purpose of obtaining certificates.

Exceptionally an examiner has been asked to visit a school and "inspect" and report on the general arrangements for teaching a particular subject, *e.g.*, natural science.

But it is right to add that:—

1. In the case of all school examinations, the board requires at least one examiner to visit the school.
2. At a fair number of schools, a *viva voce* examination is conducted by examiners of the board in some or all of the subjects of instruction.

(For the general question of inspection, *see* below, p. 283.).

Views of the Board on the Special Questions submitted to it.

Information was asked upon

1. "Leaving (*Abiturienten*) examination in secondary schools:—

(*a.*) Is it desirable?
(*b.*) Who should conduct it?
(*c.*) What advantages should it carry?
(*d.*) How far ought it to be uniform?"

Reply.

(*a.*) Leaving examinations of some sort are desirable for two reasons:—

(1.) As giving point, interest, and stimulus to school studies, supplying a standard of general attainment to be aimed at by the average schoolboy or schoolgirl.

(2.) As giving a convenient exemption from the preliminary examinations of the univeristies and of professional bodies, and so promoting the economy of examinations.

But no single examination would be suitable for the whole range of secondary schools. There should at any rate be "leaving examinations" of two standards:—

1. A lower one for those who leave school at 16.

2. A higher one for those who leave school at 18 or 19.

These examinations would meet the requirements of different classes of candidates and of schools of different types included under the term "secondary."

(*b.*) No single body should exclusively conduct such examinations.

(1.) They should be conducted by responsible bodies, in immediate communication with the universities and with secondary schools. Such "leaving examinations" are already conducted by the Oxford Delegacy of Local Examinations, the Cambridge Syndicate of Local Examinations, and the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board.

(2.) The leaving examination of the higher standard would naturally be conducted by examining bodies organized by the universities.

The leaving examination of the lower standard, so far at least as it affects schools giving an education of the highest grade, would also be naturally conducted by the same bodies.

Such bodies would have the advantage, that:—

1. They already cover the greater part of the field;

2. They are in close communication with both schools and universities, and are able readily to adjust their arrangements to the reasonable requirements of both.

(*c.*) The certificates of the leaving examination should carry.

(1.) Exemption (in the case of the higher standard) from the first university examination (*e.g.*, responsions or the previous examination);

(2.) Exemption from the qualifying non-competitive examinations of professional bodies and of the public services.

But the board is of opinion that it would be impossible to insist on the passing of this examination as a necessary condition in either of these cases.

(*d.*) With regard to uniformity—

(1.) There should be both a higher and lower examination.

(2.) In each of these there should be reasonable uniformity of standard in each subject; but the requirements as

to number and arrangement of subjects must vary with the purposes for which the examination is used, or the career to which it is preliminary, security being taken in all cases that the candidate passes a sufficiently liberal examination (*see* p. 280).

Information was also asked upon

2. 'Inspection and examination of secondary schools: (i) endowed and public, (ii) proprietary and private.

(*a.*) Are they, or is either of them, desirable?

(*b.*) Who should conduct them?

(*c.*) Should the same authority conduct both?'

Reply.

(*a.*)—1. Some examination* by outside bodies is desirable in the case of all schools, with a view to efficiency.

2. The experience of the board leads it to think that:—

(1.) Inspection in the sense of inspection of the general arrangements, curriculum, and plant of a school, should in the case of secondary schools be left to the governing body of the school, which should always include some persons of experience and authority in matters of education.

(2.) Examination of the upper forms of schools, such as are conducted by the board, serve to test not merely the teaching of the particular classes concerned, but also the teaching of the classes below them. The direct examination of the lower forms is best left in the hands of an efficient headmaster possessing the confidence of his governing body.

(3.) Inspection of the general kind (such as that in use in the case of elementary schools) cannot well be applied to secondary schools for these reasons:—

(i.) The difficulty of working such a system owing to its cost, where there is no public subsidy dependent on the results of inspection.

(ii.) The difficulty of providing inspectors for a general inspection of this kind, whose opinion would be recognized as authoritative as against that of the headmaster of a public school of the first rank. It must be remembered that for a comprehensive "inspector" of this sort much more special and much rarer qualifications are demanded than for an examination in specific subjects.

(*b.*) (*c.*) No single body should exclusively conduct the examination of secondary schools: the work might be conducted by various public bodies of recognized authority and experience.

* By examination here is understood the examination of whole classes, and not merely of individual candidates.

Other Matters within the Knowledge and Experience of the Board.

The statistics given prove the extension of the work of the board; that it has not been extended more widely is due partly (1) to the fact that its examinations are voluntary; some schools prefer either to have no external examination, or to make their own arrangements with individual examiners, foregoing the convenience of the certificate examinations; partly (2) to the fact that the examinations of the board are found, especially by smaller schools, somewhat expensive. It may be added (1) that the examination has been made easier for smaller schools by allowing to schools of less than 100 a reduction of not more than one-third in the charges for their examination; (2) that the charges for the examination have from time to time been reduced, but cannot be reduced much further without impairing their efficiency, except that as numbers increase a gradual diminution in the charges will be possible.

APPENDIX I.

STATISTICS illustrating the Growth of the Work of the Board by the Figures for the Years 1875, 1884, 1893.

I. Comparative Table of the whole Work of the Board in those years.

II. Detailed Tables as to the Candidates for Certificates in the different subjects in those years.

I.

—	1875.	1884.	1893.
Number of candidates for higher certificates.*	461	837	1,683
Number of higher certificates granted -	232	495	931
Number of candidates for lower certificates.†	—	187	838
Number of lower certificates granted -	—	83	404
Number of candidates for commercial certificates.‡	—	—	26
Number of commercial certificates granted.	—	—	10
Number of schools examined wholly or in part (boys).	46	55	89
Number of schools examined wholly or in part (girls).§	—	30	57
	£	£	£
Payments to School Examiners (excluding Supervisors).	2,200	3,400	5,425
Printing examination papers - -	320	330	365

* Girls were admitted to the examination in 1877.
† The examination for lower certificates was held for the first time in 1883.
‡ The examination for commercial certificates was held for the first time in 1888.
§ Girls' schools were first examined in 1877.

TABLE showing :—

1. The number of Candidates for Higher Certificates who offered the several subjects.
2. The number of Candidates who satisfied the Examiners.
3. The number of Candidates who passed with distinction.

1875.

II.

Subject.	Number of Candidates offering the Subject.	Number passed, including those who obtained Distinction.	Number who obtained Distinction.
Latin	438	308	37
Greek	433	253	35
French	51	34	13
German	18	13	4
Mathematics (elementary)	455	328	—
Mathematics (additional)	148	76	50
Scripture knowledge	378	292	45
English	43	26	9
History	305	234	82
Composite subject	—	—	—
Natural Philosophy (Mechanical Division).	21	10	3
Natural Philosophy (Chemical Division).	28	16	3
Botany	6	4	—
Physical Geography and Elementary Geology.	15	7	—
Music, Drawing } For girls only	Not introduced till 1877.		

Total number of Candidates (including those who, from illness or other causes, were unable to go through the examination) - - - 461
Number of certificates awarded - - - - - - 232

1884.

Subject.	Number of Candidates offering the Subject.	Number passed, including those who obtained Distinction.	Number who obtained Distinction.
Latin	742	587	56
Greek	710	520	47
French	278	192	18
German	89	56	11
Mathematics (elementary)	792	585	—
Mathematics (additional)	349	190	34

1894—*cont.*

Subject.	Number of Candidates offering the Subject.	Number passed, including those who obtained Distinction.	Number who obtained Distinction.
Scripture knowledge - - -	722	543	31
English - - - -	93	57	5
History - - - -	542	337	42
Composite subject - - -	46	10	—
Natural Philosophy (Mechanical Division).	42	35	11
Natural Philosophy (Chemical Division).	51	43	16
Botany - - - -	6	5	—
Physical Geography and Elementary Geology.	49	38	9
Music, for girls only - - -	1	1	1
Drawing „ „ - -	1	—	—

Total number of Candidates (including those who, from illness or other causes, were unable to go through the examination) - - 837
Number of certificates awarded - - - - - - 498

1893.

Subject.	Number of Candidates offering the Subject.	Number passed, including those who obtained Distinction.	Number who obtained Distinction.
Latin - - - -	1,274	839	39
Greek - - - - -	1,025	735	51
French - - - -	1,001	768	78
German - - - -	253	186	37
Mathematics (elementary) - -	1,486	1,186	—
Mathematics (additional) - -	607	423	95
Scripture knowledge - -	1,214	853	39
English - - - -	416	334	73
History - - - -	1,012	626	38
Natural Philosophy (Mechanical Division).	148	110	24
Natural Philosophy (Physical Division).	69	43	9
Natural Philosophy (Chemical Division).	119	58	13
Botany - - - -	48	41	8
Physical Geography and Elementary Geology.	35	28	3
Biology - - - -	16	6	1
Music, for girls only - -	23	8	—
Drawing „ „ - - -	45	29	8

Total number of Candidates (including those who, from illness or other causes, were unable to go through the examination) - - - 1,683
(Of these, 100 girls were candidates for letters only.)
Number of higher certificates awarded - - - - 931
„ „ letters given (Girls Reg. B.) - - - - - 106

TABLE showing:—

1. The number of Candidates for Lower Certificates who offered the several subjects.
2. The number of Candidates who satisfied the Examiners and were placed in the Second Class.
3. The number of Candidates who satisfied the Examiners and were placed in the First Class.

1884.

Subject.	Number of Candidates offering the Subject.	Number of Candidates placed in the Second Class.	Number of Candidates placed in the First Class.
Latin	160	75	39
Greek	120	51	28
French	169	103	16
German	58	21	7
Arithmetic	187	96	26
Additional Mathematics	171	60	9
Scripture knowledge	160	112	10
English	71	50	12
English History	123	48	14
Geography	87	27	1
Chemistry	37	20	—
Physics	12	7	—

Total number of Candidates (including those who, from illness or other causes, where unable to go through the examination) - - - 187
Number of certificates awarded - - - - - - 83

1893.

Subject.	Number of Candidates offering the Subject.	Number of Candidates placed in the Second Class.	Number of Candidates placed in the First Class.
Latin	667	307	130
Greek	381	187	69
French	776	446	74
German	156	73	31
Arithmetic	838	352	155
Additional Mathematics	795	386	110
Scripture knowledge	670	427	51
English	425	205	45
English History	712	219	146
Geography	417	155	67
Mechanics and Physics	26	9	11
Physics and Chemistry	66	16	16
Chemistry and Mechanics	88	14	7
Geometrical Drawing	71	26	9

Total number of Candidates (including those who, from illness or other causes, were unable to go through the examination) - - - 838
Number of lower certificates awarded - - - - 406

APPENDIX II.

Suggestions with regard to Papers used in the Inspection of Schools.

The Board has endeavoured, according to the provisions of Regulation II, to obtain the assistance of the masters of schools under examination by the use of papers set by the Board of Examiners, who do not, however, mark the answers in the first instance, but only report on them after they have been marked by the masters.

It is hoped that this mode of examination may continue to be available wherever the school authorities wish to obtain at a reduced cost a report on the work of any part of the school. It seems necessary, however, in order to render this kind of examination satisfactory, that particular attention should be directed to two points:—

1. Sufficient time should be allowed for the inspection of the papers by the board examiner. This will be secured if the answers are sent after the examination is concluded, so that they may be looked through at the leisure of the examiner before he writes his report. While an examiner is occupied in looking over and marking answers in the part of the examination exclusively conducted by him, he has often no time to inspect papers done in other parts of the examination. If papers are submitted for inspection to an examiner while he is occupied with the part of the examination exclusively conducted by him, they should not be more than can receive proper attention. If necessary, such papers can be inspected by an examiner not otherwise engaged in the examination of the school.
2. The answers must be carefully marked, and the mark-sheets filled up in accordance with the rules given below.

If attention is paid to these points, reduction in the cost of the examination may be secured without impairing the thoroughness of the examination or the value of the report.

It must be remembered that by inspecting a set of papers an examiner will not be able to determine the relative positions of the boys in a form, but will estimate and report on the general character of the work of the form.

It is desirable that the full marks to be given for each question should be assigned by the examiner who is to inspect the paper.

The relation between University Extension Teaching and Secondary Education.

Memoranda (or Extracts therefrom):—

(1.) The Oxford University Extension Delegacy.
(2.) The Cambridge University Lectures Syndicate.
(3.) The Council of the London Society for the Extension of University Teaching.
(4.) The Principal of the University Extension College, Reading.
(5.) The Honorary Secretary of the Technical and University Extension College, Exeter.

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1. The MEMORANDUM received from the OXFORD UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DELEGACY contained the following paragraphs:—

1. *Attendance of elder pupils from Secondary Schools at University Extension Courses.*

Most of the courses arranged by the delegacy are attended by some scholars from secondary schools. To provide instruction for such scholars is not the primary aim of the delegacy. On the contrary, it actually discourages the attendance of younger scholars by refusing to admit to the final examinations any candidate under 15 years of age. Nevertheless, a large number of the elder pupils in secondary schools attend the courses given under the superintendance of the delegacy.

A return has been made to the delegacy by the local secretaries at 139 centres, showing the number of pupils from secondary schools attending Oxford University Extension courses in England during the session 1893–4. The return shows that 2,547 of these scholars were in regular attendance (boys, 747; girls, 1,800). This total shows the aggregate attendance of such scholars at 100 centres, as from 39 centres it was reported that this element was entirely absent from the audience. The attendance of secondary scholars was much larger at the courses arranged by local committees than at those organised by the county councils. At 97 centres of the former type, the total return was 2,397 (boys, 651; girls, 1,746). At 41 centres of the second type, the total return was 150 (boys, 96; girls, 54), 23 of these centres reporting the attendance of secondary scholars as nil.

If the ordinary centres alone be taken, it appears that about 11 per cent. of the audiences were elder pupils from secondary schools. This element seems to be present to some extent in most of the audiences in every part of England, but is specially

large in towns like Cheltenham, Tunbridge Wells, and Bath, where there are considerable numbers of secondary schools. It is within the knowledge of the Delegacy that many of the secondary scholars attending these courses come from private schools.

The above returns include four cases in which the university extension courses are made part of the regular curriculum of the school, and are given within its walls. One of these schools is a public school for boys (Bath College); one is the Ladies' College at Cheltenham; the others are private schools for girls. The total attendance of scholars at these courses was 435 (boys, 130; girls, 305). In all of these cases the courses have been delivered annually for some years. Courses have also been occasionally given at two other secondary schools.

2. *Attendance of Teachers in Secondary Schools at the Summer Meetings.*

The delegates arrange from time to time courses of vacation study in Oxford. The summer meetings have been held annually in August from 1888–92. Each meeting lasts a month, this period being divided into two parts for the convenience of those who cannot stay for the whole time. About 1,000 students have attended each meeting. A considerable proportion, probably one-third, of the persons attending these meetings are teachers in secondary schools, women largely preponderating. The chief subjects of instruction are arranged in a cycle, extending, in the case of history and literature, over four years. Practical teaching is provided in the university laboratories in chemistry, and courses of field-work in geology, hygiene, and occasionally botany. There is also class-instruction in language, economics, sloyd, &c. The delegates are frequently informed of the benefits derived from these meetings by teachers, who get new ideas from the lectures, and from the acquaintance which they make with others engaged in educational work in foreign countries or in different types of schools in England. In order to meet a special need of secondary teachers the delegates arranged in 1894 a course of instruction in the science and art of teaching, conducted by Mr. Courthope Bowen, M.A., Professor Rein of Jena, &c.

3. *The effect on the balance of Studies in University Extension Work of the present limitations of the educational powers of County Councils.*

Many of the local committees, acting in direct co-operation with the delegacy, have from time to time received, from county councils and from the councils of county boroughs, grants in aid of their university extension work. Such aid, under the existing law, is confined to subjects coming within the definition of

technical instruction. The result of this limitation has been in some measure to disturb the balance of studies by giving special encouragement to one side of the curriculum. On this subject the delegacy received the following memorial in December 1892 :—

" At a meeting of local secretaries held in Oxford on August 9, 1892, it was decided to appoint a committee to collect information as to (1) the results of the Technical Instruction and Local Taxation Acts on the literary and historical side of the extension work, and as to (2) the opinions of the local committees in regard to the widening of the powers of the county councils, so as to enable the latter to assist all departments of extension work.

" The Committee has received answers from some 80 centres, and now lays before the delegates the results of its inquiries.

" (1.) Twenty-three centres report decidedly that their literary and historical work has suffered from the present one-sided endowment, and 11 more speak less decidedly, or expect this result in the future.

" Disregarding new centres, centres purely scientific, or centres which have had no county council grant at all, it appears that 34 out of 63 centres consider that the operations of the Act have proved, or are likely to prove, injurious to the literary and historical side of the work.

" (2.) Seventy-one centres out of 80 express themselves decidedly in favour of an extension of county council powers.

" The committee requests the delegates to take such steps as may seem fit to secure an alteration of the present arrangements."

To this memorial the delegacy returned the following reply :—

" The delegates have considered the statement submitted to them, on behalf of a committee appointed, on August 9, 1892, to collect information as to the effect of the provisions of the Technical Instruction Acts of 1889 and 1890, and the Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act, 1890, on the literary and historical side of university extension teaching.

" The delegates agree that it is probable that the present system, unless some aid is forthcoming for other than scientific and technical teaching, will impair in the future the natural and right development of different studies in their due proportion. But they find that, up to the present time, the very marked increase in the number of scientific courses, which is due to the operations of the county councils, has not been accompanied—in the Oxford branch of the work at all events—by a positive falling off in the total number of the courses arranged by local committees on other than scientific subjects.

" They would, moreover, remind the local organisers that the county councils are allowed to aid certain studies (*e.g.*, economics, art, commercial history, &c.) which are classified in the arts

group in extension work, and that the sequence of studies recommended by the delegacy includes scientific as well as literary or historical lectures. Thus the present form of endowment will clearly tend to lighten the financial burden of the local organisers, and so to set free some of the locally-subscribed funds for the special support of studies not at present aided out of public money. It is also possible that the amount of these local subscriptions may be actually increased by the liberality of those who desire to avoid a one-sided development of education. Such special liberality has already been shown in some instances.

"In view, however, of the fact that large sums of money are by general consent required for the provision of technical and scientific instruction, the delegates do not think that a request for changes in the present arrangements should be based on the ground of probable injury to one side of university extension teaching; but that it is desirable to take a wider view of the educational position, and to consider the relations between university extension teaching and other departments of national education.

"The primary aim of university extension is to provide suitable forms of higher instruction for adult students who, being unable themselves to come to a university, are anxious to obtain in their own neighbourhoods systematic teaching of a university type under the authority and guidance of a university. The success of this scheme must ultimately depend more on the number of persons desiring such instruction than on any present disposition of educational funds. And the most effective means of permanently increasing the number of adults desiring higher instruction, would seem to be to increase the number of those who are prepared for higher teaching by systematic training in intermediate schools.

"The chief obstacle to the wider development of university extension lies in the fact that the large majority of people receive little or no systematic teaching higher than that given in an elementary school, and are therefore as adults unprepared to profit by, or even to appreciate, the advantages afforded by higher education.

"The delegates therefore advise the local organisers to strengthen (by some such means as a deputation to the Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education) the hands of those who, on both sides of the House of Commons, aim at improving the system of secondary education in England. Such an improvement would, in the opinion of the delegates, not only lead to grants being made in such a manner as incidentally to help the literary and historical side of extension teaching, but would ultimately prove of the greatest value to the local organizers of university extension by increasing the number of well-prepared and regular attendants at their more systematic and continuous courses of instruction."

4. *What should be the relation of University Extension to an organised system of Secondary Education?*

The form of this question seems to indicate a desire on the part of the Commissioners to receive from the delegacy an estimate of the permanent, as distinguished from the temporary, place which university extension work may fill in a national system of secondary education.

(*a.*) Summer meetings or vacation classes seem likely to prove of advantage to an increasing number of persons engaged as teachers in secondary schools.

(*b.*) In thinly-populated districts, the services of travelling teachers, temporarily resident in the small towns or larger villages, may form a useful means of supplementing the otherwise imperfect provision for secondary education. A good teacher of history or geography, for example, might in this way co-operate with the permanent staff in three or four neighbouring schools. And the work of such travelling teachers is likely to be kept up to a high standard if the universities train men for this branch of work, receive regular reports of their experience, and conduct periodical examinations on their courses of instruction.

(*c.*) Even in districts more thickly populated, where a more highly organised system of secondary education would be possible, instruction on special subjects might well be provided by a staff of travelling teachers, trained by and responsible to the universities.

(*d.*) Moreover, occasional courses of lectures by experienced teachers from a distance would be of some value both to the pupils and to many teachers in secondary schools, by stimulating thought, giving fresh points of view and communicating the results of the research carried forward at the universities.

(*e.*) The passing of such teachers to and fro between the schools and the universities would also be a great benefit to the latter, as it would be one means of keeping them continuously acquainted with the practical needs of the teachers, and with any change in the public requirements for secondary education. Such an increase of mutual knowledge would promote the unity of the teaching profession, and make each part of the national system of education more ready to adapt itself to the changing needs of the rest.

(*f.*) But it should not be forgotten that its connexion with secondary education is a subsidiary, though an integral, part of the work of university extension. Its chief aim is to provide higher teaching for adult students who cannot themselves reside at a university. And improvements in secondary education will probably increase the numbers of adult students desiring the systematic and progressive instruction which the university extension system is designed and able to supply.

(*g.*) The present system, however, by which each centre invites a lecturer to give a single course, is necessarily expensive, as it entails large outlay on travelling, and prevents the centres from enjoying the economic advantage which would result from their engaging a lecturer at a stipend for a session's work. It is therefore, likely to give way gradually to the joint action of groups of neighbouring centres. This, however, would involve the appointment of directors to organise the work in prescribed areas. Attempts already made in this direction by federations of centres have not met with much success, financial difficulties having hitherto proved insuperable. But county councils might bring about such co-operation between neighbouring towns by engaging a lecturer at a stipend, and lending his services to each centre, which would undertake the labour and expense of local organization, and bear its quota of the lecturer's travelling allowance. Stipendiary lecturers thus engaged by a county council would have spare time to lecture at secondary schools. At present, however, the limitations on the powers of the county councils prevent them from aiding such instruction in any but scientific or technical subjects. The result of the want of freedom is to disturb in some degree the balance of studies, and to hamper their natural development. Were the present restraints removed, university extension lectures might form part of the instruction given in such subjects as history, literature, geography, and political economy in secondary schools.

(*h.*) But the work of the lecturer, though it may usefully supplement that of the teacher in a school, can never take its place. The most solid part of education must always be carried on in the class-room, not in the lecture-room. The lecturer deals with his audience as a whole, the teacher with the separate individuals who compose it. While the lecturer may not know whether his hearers work for themselves or not, it is an essential part of the teacher's function to direct the efforts of his individual pupils, to address himself to their different difficulties, to set them working on their own account, and to satisfy himself that they understand what he teaches them. Lecturing may be occasional, teaching is necessarily continuous; and, while the first may be effectually done by a stranger at comparatively distant intervals, the other must be entrusted to someone in daily intercourse with his pupils and in a disciplinary relation to them. But, though teaching is thus obviously more fitted to the needs of younger pupils who cannot be assumed to come prepared by previous acquirement, it does not follow that the lecture plays no useful part in their education. Its chief aim is stimulus rather than discipline. And the method of University extension gives stimulus without necessarily sacrificing the more searching and intimate influence of class-work. In its method the lecture does not stand alone, but is always followed by a class in order that the pupil may have the opportunity of clearing up any difficulties which may have arisen in his mind.

And as adapted to school work, the class in university extension work may well be made more catechetical than is expedient in the case of adult audiences. Moreover, no pupil is allowed to enter for the final examination on any University extension course without having written for the lecturer a considerable number of exercises on subjects connected with the lectures. Thus the university extension lectures, though in no way a substitute for class work, are a valuable supplement to it, and may advantageously be used as an element in the curriculum of the higher classes in secondary schools. At the same time the method of instruction by lecture is not equally well adapted to all subjects. In certain branches of Natural Science, *e.g.*, Chemistry and Physics, it is wholly inferior to instruction given in the laboratory, and the delegates have therefore authorised departure from their ordinary method in the case of teaching in such subjects.

(*i.*) It remains, however, to consider whether the present administration of university extension teaching is well fitted for a more thoroughly organised state of public education. At first sight it may appear that a joint universities' board would be a better body to direct university extension work than the various university authorities which now superintend it. Those, however, who are well acquainted with the present system, are aware that it provides opportunity for many experiments which it would be difficult, if not impossible, to make under a more centralised administration. Moreover, through the influence of the several authorities, the experience and traditions of the different universities now enter freely into university entension work and greatly add to its educational efficiency. A joint board, however, would represent no single university, but rather a compromise between them. It is not possible to argue from the analogy of the joint examining board to the probable success of a similar organisation in university extension. For, while the chief duties of the former are confined to the oversight of periodical examinations, the work of the latter is more irregular and full of unforseen emergencies. The formation of a joint board for university extension would mean either the needless duplicating of heavy correspondence with consequent and embarrassing delays, or the establishment of a common office which would have to be either at one university, and so unduly influenced by one of several authorities, or at some central place, and so remote from any university influence whatever. The second course, though in some ways preferable to the first, would make it impossible for resident graduates to give to the direction of university extension work the continuous attention which it now receives. University extension would thus be deprived of the chief source of its influence, and would necessarily tend to represent a more limited experience and a narrower point of view. The present system secures variety and experiment, both of which are especially needed in a work dealing

with a field of education still largely unexplored. It has, moreover, been found by experience that the methods of university extension teaching have been enriched by the separate labours of the several authorities. Thus, at different times, Oxford has borrowed from Cambridge the idea of supplementing the lecture by the class and the present regulations which keep the final examinations in close relation to the teaching. Cambridge, on the other hand, has borrowed from Oxford the plan of summer meetings and of travelling libraries. Nor are the advantages, which would naturally be expected from the organisation of a joint board, less effectually attained under the present system. The harmful effects of competition are avoided by agreements on such points as (1) the standard of the award of certificates, (2) methods of organisation, and (3) intrusion on ground already occupied, while at the same time the advantages of emulation between the several university authorities are secured. And the past history of the work shows that, as it becomes more highly organised, the co-operation between the various authorities tends to grow more complete and regular without losing anything of its elasticity and freedom, practical unity being gained by frequent conference and constant consultation.

(2.) University of Cambridge Local Examinations and Lectures Syndicate.

Syndicate Buildings, Cambridge,
June 11, 1894.

Sir,

I am directed by the Cambridge University Local Examinations and Lectures Syndicate to reply as follows to the enquiries of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education as to the work of local lectures (popularly known as university extension).

(*a.*) With regard to your question as to secondary schools:

The Syndicate do not make a practice of providing lectures for schools. Within the last two sessions this has, in fact, been done only in a single case; a course of lectures arranged to be given at Pontefract in the evening was also given in the afternoon at a school a few miles off, and was attended by the bulk of the teachers and senior scholars in the school.

(*b.*) As to the attendance at the local lectures of scholars from secondary schools, the Syndicate are unable to give very accurate details; no information is regularly supplied to them by local committees as to the exact composition of the audiences. On receipt of your letter of enquiry a letter was sent to the local secretaries, asking for information on this point (as well as about the attendance at the local lectures of teachers in secondary schools). An abstract of the replies, as far as they can be

reduced to statistics, is given as an appendix to this letter; in many cases, however, no complete record was kept.

These replies, and the evidence of lecturers and others, show that the extent to which the system of the local lectures is utilized by secondary schools varies very much with the locality and other circumstances.

As the local lectures are intended primarily for adults, whose early education may in some cases have been somewhat imperfect, it not unfrequently happens that the higher forms of good high schools or grammar schools are capable of profiting to some extent by the teaching given, if the subject happens to be allied to ordinary school subjects. This is especially the case when the lectures deal with some comparatively advanced subject, on which it is difficult for a school to provide competent teaching by a member of the permanent staff. Consequently, where such schools exist, it is not uncommon for a limited number of the more advanced scholars (chiefly girls) to attend the lectures and classes, and even write papers and enter for the examination. Junior scholars (say 14 or 15 years old), or scholars from inferior schools, also attend occasionally, but the results do not usually appear to be satisfactory.

The attendance of scholars from secondary schools is sometimes exceptionally large, if the course of lectures happens to deal with some subject set for the Cambridge Local Examinations, or some other public examination. Such coincidences are, however, purely accidental, and consequently of rare occurrence.

The statistics given in the Appendix show that in many cases no scholars from secondary schools attend the lectures, whereas in a few cases they constitute more than half the audience. On the average about 15 per cent. of the lecture audience at centres which have supplied exact information appears to consist of such scholars; the number of such scholars who also attend the conversational class (with which the lecture is always supplemented) and who do paper work is probably slightly larger in proportion. In most cases where no information has been received by the Syndicate from local committees, it is probable that the attendance of scholars is less than elsewhere, and on this account a deduction should be made from the percentage just given.

In reply to your enquiry (1) as to the help given to teachers:

The figures given in the Appendix show that at nearly every centre some teachers in secondary schools attend the lectures. With few exceptions these are women. It should be noted also that a fair number of governesses in private families, who may perhaps be regarded as taking part in secondary education, attend the lectures.

The long vacation courses of study (summer meetings), which have been arranged at Cambridge for several years past, chiefly for local lectures students, have been attended by many teachers

in secondary schools. In 1893, out of about 650 students who were present at Cambridge, it may be roughly estimated that from 50—100 were teachers in secondary schools. Very few of these (probably fewer than 10) were men.

The Syndicate feel some difficulty in replying definitely to your last question (2), owing to their ignorance of the way in which secondary education is likely to be organised. The following points may, however, be suggested:

In the view of the Syndicate the primary object of the local lectures is to provide the means of higher education for adults who have passed through a school curriculum, but who, being engaged in the regular occupations of life, are unable to obtain the full benefits of a university education. Any services which may be rendered to boys or girls actually at school must therefore be regarded as incidental to the main purpose of the lectures.

The Syndicate are, however, much impressed by the testimony borne by their lecturers and others to the imperfection of the previous education received by many of those who attend the local lectures. A rise in the general level of knowledge and intelligence (such as would result from an improvement in secondary education) would enable the standard of the local lectures to be considerably raised; such a change would naturally be welcomed by the Syndicate.

The local lectures seem likely to be able to render in the future (as they have done in the past) important services to teachers in schools. The necessity for a teacher to be also a learner has been recognised by all educational experts. The university local lectures afford an opportunity for teachers to pursue their studies in their own special subjects, or in others, and thus contribute towards keeping up the freshness of their teaching.

It is probable, however, that in the future, as hitherto, the main function of the local lectures in relation to secondary education will consist in carrying to a higher stage the education begun at schools, and in particular in keeping alive or reviving intellectual interests which are fostered by intelligent school teaching, and are only too often allowed to disappear in after years, owing to want of suitable opportunity for their development, and the pressure of professional or social duties.

I am directed by the Syndicate to send, for the use of the Commission the Twentieth Annual Report on the work of the local lectures (being the latest published), a number of specimen syllabuses and examination papers, the detailed programme of the summer meeting of 1893, and other papers relating to the local lectures.

I remain, &c.,
(Signed) A. BERRY,
Secretary for Lectures to the Local Examinations and Lectures Syndicate.

The Hon. W. N. Bruce.

MEMORANDUM on SPECIAL COURSES for TEACHERS under the NORFOLK COUNTY COUNCIL designed to qualify them to teach in Evening Schools and Village Classes.

A work of special interest has for four years been carried on by the Syndicate in co-operation with the Norfolk County Council. A course of lectures has been arranged each year to be delivered on Saturdays at two or three centres in the county, for the purpose of qualifying teachers in elementary schools to teach certain subjects in evening classes in their respective villages. The scheme was first tried in 1891, and a course on chemistry, with special application to agriculture, was delivered at Norwich, King's Lynn, and Elmham. Each lecture was followed by a course of practical work, to enable the teachers to perform the more important experiments in teaching in their own villages. About 70 teachers attended the lectures in the first year. In the following year a second and more advanced course on agricultural chemistry was delivered, and this work was further supplemented in the summer of 1892 by a practical course in the university laboratory at Cambridge, which was attended by 30 of the Norfolk teachers, who were sent at the expense of the County Council. In 1893 a third course on "the principles of chemistry" was delivered, and laboratory work as before was carried on for three weeks at Cambridge. In 1894 a fresh subject (botany) was undertaken, and a second course on the same subject was delivered in the spring of the present year. A practical course, for such of the teachers as have attended the theoretical course and have obtained County Council scholarships, has been arranged for the coming summer, to be held in the Botanical Laboratory at Cambridge. The travelling expenses of the teachers attending these courses of lectures are paid by the County Council, and 20 scholarships are granted to enable that number of students to take the practical work at Cambridge during the summer. The teachers who obtain the local lectures certificate granted by the Syndicate and reach a fixed standard in the examination are authorised by the County Council to teach the subject at evening classes in the county, and grants are made by the Council in aid of such classes. This work of training teachers to teach subjects bearing upon agriculture in the evening continuation schools is of great importance, and the results already attained in Norfolk show that a similar scheme might with advantage be taken up by the councils of other counties.

(3.) The London Society for the Extension of University Teaching.

Charterhouse, E.C., May 18, 1894.

The council have the pleasure to submit the following statement in answer to the inquiries made by the Royal Commission on Secondary Education.

1. To what extent do (*a*) secondary schools (*b*) scholars from secondary schools, avail themselves of the system of the Society?

The Council of the London Society have made it an invariable rule that a representative local committee should be formed wherever a centre of teaching is established. They have, therefore, declined to arrange courses of lectures in schools unless a representative committee is formed and the general public are admitted as well as the scholars from the school. It has, however, occasionally happened that the initiative in founding a centre has been taken by the headmistress or some of the teachers of high schools for girls, and that the lectures have been delivered in the hall of the school, the audience being made up partly of teachers and the older girls, and partly of the outside public. At such centres, and also at others where the lectures are in no sort of connexion with a high school, pupils from girls' schools, and less freuqently from boys' schools, have attended. The council and universities board have, however, always felt that the university extension system, as at present constituted, could not without serious disadvantage be utilised largely for the teaching of children of school age, and the universities board emphasised that view by passing the following regulation:—

"Lecturers are not required to correct the paper-work of students under 15 years of age, nor are such students entitled to enter for the examination and receive certificates."

The university extension movement being intended for adults, the presence at the lectures of boys or girls from secondary schools tends to lower the standard of the work. Lecturers have frequently complained of the sameness in the character of the paper-work sent in by such pupils, and the want of intelligent and vigorous grasp of the subject. It is not while at school, but after school days are over, that the university extension movement can with most advantage be of service to the young people of both sexes.

2. How far by the arrangement of summer meetings or otherwise has the society been able to help teachers in secondary schools?

The London Society has never been able to arrange anything in the nature of a summer meeting, and the only aid which it has been possible to give the teachers in secondary schools, has been by the provision of the ordinary university extension courses. The question has, however, been mooted of arranging

special courses on education designed to meet the needs of teachers, but no practical step in that direction has as yet been taken.

3. What should the relation of university extension to an organised system of Secondary Education?

The relation between the university extension system and the system of Secondary Education when completely organised, would seem to be a very simple and straightforward one. The pupils leaving secondary schools fall, broadly speaking, into two classes (*a*) those who are proceeding to the universities, (*b*) those who are entering a business life, or, in the case of women, who are living at home. It is this second class whose educational needs the university extension system is designed to meet, and there can be little doubt that if continuous systematic courses of study on university extension lines can be regularly arranged, extending over a period of years, and especially if they can be made to lead up eventually to a university degree, many will be encouraged after leaving school to carry on higher education side by side with the learning of a trade or profession. The question has more than once been discussed whether it would not be possible for the best secondary schools to have a course of university extension lectures specially for the sake of the pupils who have just left school and for the teachers. If the financial difficulty could be solved, and it became a recognised part of the high school system to have a course of lectures in every term for the sake of pupils who have just left, a most useful work might be done in keeping together pupils after leaving school and giving direction and encouragement in the continuation of any special study. Clearly in any adequate system of secondary and higher education, there should be some means by which the pupils on leaving school might have immediate opportunities opened up to them of carrying on special studies into higher stages. By means of the university extension system, this might be done in the most effective and thorough way.

Signed on behalf of the Council
R. D. Roberts,
Secretary.

Postscript.—Since sending in our answer to the questions put by you on behalf of the Commissioners a short while ago, we have made full inquiries as to the attendance of boys and girls from secondary schools at our London local centres during the last session. The returns we have received from the secretaries of 44 centres show that the number of boys from secondary schools was 202, and the number of girls 215, making a total of 417 children from secondary schools out of a total of about 15,000 persons who attended the lectures during the last session.

I ought, perhaps, to add, that during the last winter the London County Council arranged under our auspices five courses

of lectures on chemistry in large town halls in industrial districts of London. The admission to these was free, and a considerable number of boys from elementary schools attended these five courses.

July 2, 1894.

(4.) The MEMORANDUM from the PRINCIPAL of the UNIVERSITY EXTENSION COLLEGE, READING, contains the following passage:—

"The University Extension College, Reading, is an institution of a new type, which has not yet had time to occupy all the ground marked out for it. It was formed in June 1892 by the amalgamation of the Reading University Extension Association with the Reading Schools of Science and Art. The occasion was the gift to the former body by Christ Church, Oxford, of the services of one of its students for the purpose of imparting "system and completeness to the educational work of the "centre." The aim of the college is to do for a town of the second order what a university college does for a great city, and in addition, to retain that close touch with the general life of the community which is the special characteristic of the university extension system at its best. Looked at from another point of view, the college has the function of co-ordinating the various educational agencies (other than schools proper) which have grown up as the result of distinct local efforts under the stimulus and guidance of various Government Departments, of the Universities, of the town and county councils, and of the great London societies. Both the dignity and efficiency of education are advanced by the resultant economy of organisers and avoidance of conflict. The college does not compete with systematic school education, either elementary, second grade, or first grade. Its province is to give all other instruction, both to men and women, which may be possible outside a great university. Its distinguishing characteristic is the effort to blend into one system both liberal and applied education, and to make them mutually helpful.

From this it follows that several types of student have to be provided for in the scheme of work. Some come from the elementary or the evening school at the age of 14, others from the second grade school at 16, and yet others from the first grade school at 18. All must again be divided into those who can give the whole of their time to study, and those who can spare only a part; of the latter some can attend in the daytime, some only in the evening.

With all the variety of circumstance and preparation exhibited by its students, there is a unity of instruction and discipline which characterises the university extension college, differentiating it from a school and rendering possible the use of

a single organisation for such various ends. This unity lies in the fact that all the classes have to be taught and managed by methods appropriate to adults and adolescents rather than to children. This is so even with the younger students of the poorer class in the evening department, for their rougher experience gives them earlier maturity than is shown by the children of well-to-do parents. It would seem, therefore, undesirable to subject the college to any local school authority, a conclusion further enforced by the fact that a wide area and the aid of many co-operating public bodies are essential to the adequate maintenance of a collegiate organisation. The necessary influence both of the public and the schools may be obtained by the representation on the college council of public bodies and school governors. The college council should, in turn, elect to seats on other scholastic boards.

* * * *

It should be added that the college is the pupil teacher centre for the district, and thus carries on what is essentially a piece of secondary education, though outside the regular scheme, and with peculiarly intimate bearing on elementary education.

The college has yet other, though less formal, relations to secondary education. By means of public lectures it gives stimulus and ideas to the teachers of secondary schools and to some of their older pupils. By technical and normal classes it enables busy teachers to keep themselves abreast of the advance of knowledge. It acts, furthermore, as a centre whence peripatetic teachers may visit neighbouring schools to lead the instruction, especially in such subjects as history, geography, and fine art. Thus the schools are imbued with the influence of the college, exactly as the college itself is kept worthy and consistent by the influence of the historic universities. Lastly, the college can lead the schools by organising for them the various local examinations of the universities, the Government Departments, and the London societies.

On its technical side the college can obtain adequate support from public grants, but it has to encounter considerable financial difficulties in its literary and historical work. With larger means much might be done in the way of citizen education, but it is precisely in relation to secondary education that the present limitation of grants to technical subjects is most cramping. To take one example only, an attempt on the the part of the college to bring local history to bear on the school teaching of general English history is at present threatened with failure for lack of funds applicable to such a purpose. The result aimed at is a great one—in no other way can history be made a living force in the majority of minds—but to succeed, the teaching must be based on careful research, and must be persisted with for a series of years. Such teaching cannot possibly be self-supporting, though most people would now admit it to be a national want. There is needed for the task a man possessing scholarly

diligence, power of imagination and zeal to teach, and such a man would not be justified in devoting himself to the work without security of income for some years. An institution like the university extension college is probably, from the nature of the case, better fitted to select and support such a man than a town or county council. But even if the councils could make grants to the college free from existing limitations, they would hesitate long before breaking such new ground as that suggested. I believe, however, that a small grant from some central source to institutions of the rank of this college—institutions, that is to say, in connexion with several counties—would give to them precisely that power of experiment and initiative which they need in order to bring about great changes. A grant with the prestige of a central origin acts as a nucleus round which local help rapidly gathers. As an instance of this may be cited the effect of a recent grant of 150*l.* from the Board of Agriculture to this college in determining the hesitation of three counties, and moving them to convergent instead of divergent action.

(5.) MEMORANDUM from Miss MONTGOMERY, Honorary Secretary of the Technical and University Extension College, Exeter.

SIR, May 17, 1894.

OWING to absence from England, this is the first day I have been able to answer the letter you were good enough to address to me on April 30th inviting me to express my views—

(1) As to the present position of our college with regard to secondary education;

(2) As to the position it shall occupy in a complete scheme of secondary education.

With regard to the first point, Exeter is unusually well provided with secondary schools, and with scholarships leading from the lowest to the highest, and on to the universities.

But by far the larger portion of children leave the elementary and secondary schools at an early age, with no idea of going to the higher schools, where they do not find precisely such teaching in Latin, modern languages, English, geography, history, and mathematics as would fit them for commercial life, clerkships, civil service appointments, &c. There was, in fact, great want of such teaching as is given in the German *Real Schulen*. This want our college supplies.

Another important service it renders, by its continual protest in favour of secondary education preceding, accompanying, and supplementing technical instruction. By the establishment of the college, technical, secondary, and higher education have been brought into mutual relationship. The fact that the college buildings are municipal property, and that the technical department is under the control of the council, gives stability and a guarantee of permanence; while the university extension

department, which provides the larger amount of secondary education, is managed by an elected and thoroughly representative committee, the members being selected, *ad hoc*, by the various public bodies of the city, thus preserving the element of spontaneity and personal effort which foster enthusiasm, and are essential to success.

Both departments are under the control of the principal, a university graduate. Moreover, we attach very great importance to the measure of university support and control which we enjoy as an "affiliated" centre; it is a valuable counterpoise to the purely commercial and utilitarian spirit, which demands quick returns even at the cost of small profits.

With regard to the second point. There is no institution in the western counties which provides secondary education for persons over school age, whether scholars from elementary or secondary schools; the nearest is Bristol University College. I think no scheme of secondary education could be considered complete without this; and Exeter is admirably suited as a large railway centre to be the site of such an institution.

The county council are at present devoting most of their funds and energies to continuation schools; after a year or two of such elementary teaching, there should be a considerable number of persons desirous of carrying on their studies to a higher level, and the supply of teachers for continuation schools will require to be maintained. We desire to provide for both these needs as well as for our own citizens.

We have the necessary buildings, sufficient "plant," and a thoroughly efficient principal; but we have not the funds to increase our teaching staff so as to meet the increasing demands which are already being made on us to multiply our day classes and extend our curriculum.

If a fixed income, available for secondary education, could be secured to the university extension department equal in amount to that enjoyed by the technical department, there can, I think, be no question that the college would fulfil a very important, and even necessary part, in the secondary education of Exeter and Devonshire.

The problem how to prevent secondary school education being completely wasted for lack of opportunity and inducement to carry it on after leaving school is a very anxious and complicated one. To a large extent it must be a case of *solvitur ambulando;* and I cannot but hope that by our experiment we may leave some small addition to the stock of practical experience on the subject.

Thanking you for allowing me an opportunity of speaking on a subject in which I take a deep interest.

Believe me, &c.

JESSIE DOUGLAS MONTGOMERY,
Hon. Sec. of Technical and University
Extension College, Exeter.

Hon. W. N. Bruce.

CONFERENCE OF HEAD-MASTERS, 1894.

SECONDARY EDUCATION.—DRAFT OF SCHEME, considered and adopted at Conference on Friday and Saturday, October 5 and 6.

LETTER addressed to CHAIRMAN of HEADMASTERS' COMMITTEE by SECRETARY of ROYAL COMMISSION ON SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Royal Commission on Secondary Education,
6, Old Palace Yard, S.W.,
April 27, 1894.

SIR,

I AM directed by the Royal Commission on Secondary Education to express the hope that they may be favoured with the assistance of the head masters' conference, in their endeavour to obtain satisfactory information upon matters coming within the terms of reference—of which a copy is enclosed—which may in some degree affect the schools represented by the Conference.

In addition to any statistical information in the possession of the Conference which would, in the opinion of the Conference, throw light upon the present provision of Secondary Education of the kind with which the Conference is mainly concerned, the Commissioners would be glad to receive a concise statement of the views of the Conference on the following points:—

(1.) Is it desirable that provision should be made for the establishment of public preparatory schools?

(2.) What is the best method of facilitating and regulating the passing of scholars from one class of Secondary School to another?

(3.) Is the present system of competitive entrance scholarships, tenable at public schools, satisfactory? If not, why not?

Have the successful candidates as a rule received special preparation?

(4.) The recommendations of the Select Committee of the House of Commons of 1891, on the registration of teachers.

(5.) The desirability of making provision for instruction and training in the profession of teaching, and the best method of doing so.

(6.) It has been suggested that there should be constituted a central educational authority, with some power of supervision and control over Secondary Education. Would the establishment of such an authority be an advantage to the schools, represented by the Conference?

If any such authority were to be established, how should it be constituted?

(7.) Is a system of inspection of schools, represented on the Conference, desirable ?

If so, by whom should it be conducted ?

(8.) With a view to the contemplated reorganisation of Secondary Education in England, can the Conference make suggestions for the creation of any provincial or local authority whose existence would be of benefit to their schools ?

The Commissioners will be glad to receive memoranda on these, or any other points, from individual members of the Conference.

I am further to invite the Conference to submit the name of some person to give oral evidence on their behalf.

The Commissioners will not object to the submission of two names for this purpose, if it is understood that the witnesses may be examined together.

In case the Conference desires to tender oral evidence, I shall be glad to receive the name of the proposed witness at an early date, and will then communicate with you further as to the time and place of hearing.

I am, &c.

WILLIAM N. BRUCE,
Secretary.

The Rev. Edmond Warre, D.D.,
Eton College, Bucks.

DRAFT, QUESTIONS addressed to MEMBERS of the CONFERENCE by SECRETARY of ROYAL COMMISSION on SECONDARY EDUCATION, and cognate matters, arranged in order for discussion.

I. ORGANIZATION.

1. Question 6.—It has been suggested that there should be constituted a Central Educational Authority, with some power of supervision and control over Secondary Education. Would the establishment of such an authority be an advantage to the schools represented by the Conference ?

If any such authority were to be established, how should it be constituted ?

2. Question 8.—With a view to the contemplated reorganization of Secondary Education in England, can the Conference make suggestions for the creation of any provincial or local authority whose existence would be of benefit to your schools ?

II. CLASSIFICATION AND CORRELATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

1. Questions 1 and 2—Is it desirable that provisions should be made for the establishment of public preparatory schools ?

What is the best method of facilitating and regulating the passing of scholars from one class of Secondary School to another ?

1. Public. 2. Private. 3. Boarding. 4. Day schools.

Each of the classes as,

1. Preparatory.
2. Middle schools.
3. First grade schools.

N.B.—'Public' is taken to mean under public control.

2. Registration of schools.

III. Inspection.

1. Question 7—Is a system of inspection of schools, represented on the conference, desirable ?
2. If so, by whom should it be conducted ?
3. Universities, relation to central or local authority.

IV. Registration and Training of Teachers.

1. Desirability of Registration.
2. Condition of Registration.
3. Question 4—Special reference to the recommendations of the Select Committee of the House of Commons of 1891, on the registration of teachers.
4. Question 5—The desirability of making provision for instruction and training in the profession of teaching, and the best method of doing so.

V. Scholarships.

1. Question 3—Is the present system of competitive entrance scholarships, tenable at public schools, satisfactory ? If not, why not ?

Have the successful candidates as a rule received special preparation ?

2. Entrance scholarships and exhibitions.
3. Leaving scholarships and exhibitions.

DRAFT OF SCHEME.

I.—Organisation.

A.—Character of Central and other Educational Authorities and Co-Ordination of the same.

These to consist of :—

1. Central educational authority, with control over secondary education.

2. County or provincial educational committees (*i.e.*, Educational Councils for counties, or groups of counties).
3. Governing bodies of schools.

B.—Constitution of Central and other Educational Authorities.

1. Central authority.

a. The central authority to consist of a statutory commission composed to a great extent of persons experienced in educational matters.

b. The commission to be independent of any other department, and responsible to Parliament through a Minister of the Crown.

2. County or provisional educational committees.

a. Committees to consist of not less than 12 persons.

b. Not less than one-third of these to be appointed by the Statutory Commission.

c. Adequate representation of educational interests on the committees to be secured.

3. Governing bodies of schools.

a. As at present existing.

b. If any new schools should be established under the Act, care to be taken that they should have governing bodies in which educational interests are adequately represented.

C.—Functions of Central and other Educational Authorities.

1. Functions of central authority.

a. To take over such functions and powers with regard to secondary education as are now exercised by the Charity Commissioners, including those previously exercised by the Endowed Schools' Commission, and any others affecting secondary education, subject to such provisions as may be made with respect to the powers and functions of the county or provincial educational committees.

b. To take over such functions and powers with respect to secondary education as are now exercised by the Educational Department of the Privy Council.

c. To determine areas of educational districts for purposes of secondary education.

d. To receive reports and recommendations from county or provincial educational committees, to revise schemes prepared by them, to consider and decide upon appeals from county or provincial councils, or from governing bodies, or from head-masters, and, if necessary, to order inquiries into the condition of secondary education in particular

districts, and into the available means for supplying deficiencies.

e. To establish and maintain a system of registration of secondary schools.

f. To establish and maintain a register of teachers in secondary schools.

g. To appoint inspectors for secondary schools.

h. To receive and allot any Imperial grant which may be made in aid of secondary and technical education.

2. Functions of county or provincial educational committees.

a. To take over such functions and powers with regard to technical or other secondary education as are now exercised by county councils.

b. To inquire from time to time into the condition of secondary education in their district, and to report at least once a year to the central authority.

To prepare schemes for:—

1. Supplying deficiences in the secondary education in their districts.
2. Remodelling existing foundations, if required to do so by the central authority.

d. To have power to make recommendations to the central authority (or to the Charity Commissioners) with respect to:—

1. The amalgamation of existing educational endowments.
2. The application of endowments that might reasonably be used for the purposes of secondary education.

e. To have power to recommend the raising a rate by the proper rating authority for the purposes of secondary education.

f In case of a difference of opinion arising between the governing body of a school and the county or provincial educational committee an appeal to lie to the central authority.

3. Functions of governing bodies. As at present.

II.—Classification and Co-relation of Secondary Schools.

A.—Classification of Secondary Schools.

1. Every classification of secondary schools should recognise the distinction between such schools as have, and such as have not a preponderating local connexion.

2. Those that have such preponderating local connexion should be placed in direct relation with the county or provincial educational committees.

3. Those that have not any such preponderating local connexion should be placed in direct relation with the central authority.

4. In classification the system of grading by age to be adopted as the most convenient. The ages given below must, however, be regarded as approximate, and may vary, within limits, according to local circumstances.

5. The preparatory school, or preparatory department of a second or first grade school, is supposed to take pupils from 8 to 13 (14), the second grade school from 8 to 16 (17), the first grade school from 8 to 19 (20).

EXPLANATORY TABLE.

A. (8 to 11 [12]).	B. (11 [12] to 13 [14]).	C. (13 [14] to 16 [17]).	D. (16 [17] to 19 [20]).	E. (19 to 22, or upwards).
I. Public Elementary (Standards I.–VI.)	Higher Grade Elementary or Standard VII.			
II. Preparatory, or Preparatory Department of III. and IV.	Preparatory, or Preparatory Department of III. and IV.	V. Technical School or Technical Department. Second Grade.*	VI. Local University College.	Local University College.
III. Second Grade.*	Second Grade*.			
IV. First Grade.	First Grade.	First Grade.	First Grade.	VII. University.

* Where there is no second grade school the work should be done by a department of the first grade school.

According to this scheme a public elementary school will lead at the age of 11 (12), provided the Sixth Standard has been reached, to (1) the higher grade elementary school, (2) the second grade school, or (3) the first grade school;

The higher grade elementary school will lead at the age of 13 (14) to a technical school or technical department of a second or first grade school.

A preparatory school or preparatory department of III. or IV. will lead to a second grade school, or a first grade school at the age of 11 (12), or 13 (14);

A second grade school will lead at the age of 11 (12), or 13 (14) to a first grade school, at 13 (14) to a technical school or technical department, and at 16 (17) to a local university college, or to a first grade school (the last rarely and in exceptional cases);

The first grade school will lead to the local university college at 16 (17) or at 19 (20), and to the university at 19 (20);

The technical school or department will lead to the local university college at 16 (17).

The preparatory, second grade, and first grade schools, may be either public or private, day or boarding.

Where (except in large manufacturing towns) the second grade or first grade school provides laboratories, workshops, and the other requirements for technical instruction, it would be better that this department should be substituted for the technical school.

The local university college is assumed to include a medical department. It should also, as a rule, include under E. a department for the training of teachers.

B.—Correlation of Secondary Schools.

1. In any system of correlated schools it is essential that the aim of each school should be kept in view, and that "overlapping" should be as far as possible avoided. The last point needs special consideration in the case of higher grade elementary schools.

2. No scheme of correlation will prevent overlapping which does not provide that schools should not retain boys beyond the superior limit of age assigned to their grade.

3. Scholars of distinguished ability should be encouraged to pass to higher schools, but it is desirable that the change should be made as early as possible.

4. The passing of scholars from one school to another will be facilitated by the establishment of scholarships in the lower schools tenable at the higher schools, and of entrance scholarships at the higher schools.

5. There should, as a rule, be higher schools within a reasonable distance of all children likely to need them.

6. In cases where this may not be possible, it is suggested that a school of mixed character might with advantage be substituted for the elementary school.

III.—Inspection and Examination.

A. *Inspection.*

1. A system of inspection, as distinct from examination, is desirable, having due regard to the functions already assigned to governing bodies.

2. Inspection to be conducted by inspectors appointed by the central authority.

3. The inspectors to have a seat on the county or provincial educational committees of their county or province, but without a vote.

4. The inspectors to visit such schools as the central authority, or the county or provincial educational committees may direct and to report upon:—

a. Buildings, number and size of school-rooms, and playground.
b. Sanitary arrangements.
c. Equipment as to educational apparatus.
d. Number of fully qualified and other teachers.
e. Proportion of masters to boys.
f. The professed objects of the school curriculum.

5. The inspectors to report to—

a The central educational authority for non-local schools.
b. The county or provincial educational authority for local schools.
c. Copies of such reports in each case to be communicated to the governing body or authority responsible for the school, and to the headmaster.

6. The inspectors to have power to recommend in their reports improvements where necessary.

B. *Examination.*

In all secondary schools examination by a recognised external authority is desirable.

1. For schools such as belong to the conference a recognised leaving examination by the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

2. For other schools, examination by the Universities, or by other recognised examining bodies.

IV.—Registration of Teachers and Schools. Training of Teachers.

A. *Registration.*

1. Registration of persons qualified to teach in secondary schools is desirable.

2. For registration, evidence of teaching capacity and professional knowledge should be required, but a probationer should be allowed to teach for a limited period on giving evidence of sufficient attainments, as attested by a degree or other recognised examination.

3. The test of teaching capacity should include the testimony of the authorities of a school where the probationer has taught as well as the certificate of a recognised examining body.

4. Existing teachers should be admitted to the register on satisfactory evidence of attainments; they should not be put on the register merely as such, but should not suffer any legal disability.

5. After a reasonable time no unregistered person should be competent to hold office in any registered secondary school.

6. The detailed conditions of registration, both of schools and of teachers, should be fixed by the central authority.

B. *Training.*

1. It is desirable that all persons desiring to become teachers in secondary schools should undergo some professional training.

2. The training should include both theoretical knowledge and practice under proper supervision.

3. Additional facilities are required for training teachers for secondary schools, and should include arrangements suitable to persons actually engaged in school work.

V.—Scholarships.

The main object of entrance scholarships at secondary schools is to provide a good education for the sons of such parents as would be unable without some pecuniary help to afford the expense of such education. There can be no doubt that this object has been largely atttained. Scholarships have been the means of giving a higher education to very many boys of marked ability, who without the pecuniary assistance afforded by a scholarship could not have entered a public school.

There have also been other incidental advantages in the present system of entrance scholarships. The competition for the scholarships has increased the care and skill of preparatory teachers, it has raised the standard of learning and ambition among young boys, it has acted as a check upon athletics.

But it is acknowledged by schoolmasters that the present system has given rise to abuses. Though in some cases wealthy parents feel a scruple about accepting scholarships for their sons, and a large majority of scholars are deserving of such assistance, yet, since the removal of all restrictions on the ground of wealth, scholarships have not unfrequently fallen to the sons of well-to-do parents. Such boys are even at some advantage in the competition, as their parents can most easily pay for the best preparation. It has more than once been admitted at head masters' conferences that some remedy is needed for this state of things. Probably the remedy most largely approved would be to exact some evidence of pecuniary need from the parents of boys who receive the emoluments of entrance scholarships, and to allow the sons of richer parents who may become scholars to enjoy the status without the emoluments of scholarships.

A similar test should be applied to leaving exhibitions, and to entrance scholarships at the universities.

THE INCORPORATED ASSOCIATION OF HEADMASTERS.

Gresham College, E.C.,
SIR, February 12, 1895.

AT the Annual General Meeting of this Association held at Grocers' Hall, E.C., on 10th ultimo, at which over 140 members were present, the following resolutions relating to the tenure of office of masters in public secondary schools were passed, *nemine contradicente* :—

1. "That this Association is of opinion that, in the interests of secondary schools, it is desirable that the appointment and dismissal of assistant masters should remain entirely in the hands of the head master."
2. "That this Association is opposed to any appeal in cases of the dismissal of assistant masters."

I am instructed by the Committee to call your attention to the accompanying memorandum which they have drawn up, embodying the considerations which led the Association at the General Meeting to formulate the foregoing resolutions.

I am, &c.

To the Secretary of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education.

R. P. SCOTT,
Honorary Secretary.

THE INCORPORATED ASSOCIATION OF HEADMASTERS.

On the Superannuation of Masters in Public Secondary Schools.

Gresham College, E.C.,
SIR, February 9, 1895.

AT the Annual General Meeting of this Association, held at Grocers' Hall, E.C., on 10th ultimo, at which over 140 members were present, the following resolutions relating to the superannuation of masters in public secondary schools were unanimously passed :—

(*a*) "That, inasmuch as in the schemes of the Charity Commission of the clause relating to the pension fund of the head master, being permissive, has hitherto proved inoperative, it is absolutely necessary, in the best interests of public secondary schools, that this clause be made compulsory and come into force on the appointment of the head master."

(*b*) "That such provision should be made retrospective."

(*c*) "That governing bodies of Public Secondary Schools be recommended to adopt for head masters the pension

scheme framed in the Agreement between the Office of the Imperial Life Assurance and this Association."

(*d*) "That representations in accordance with the above resolutions be submitted to the Royal Commission on Secondary Education and to the Charity Commission."

In calling the attention of the Commission to the resolutions, the committee of this Association further desires to point out—

1. That the work of a head master makes so great a demand upon his energy and vitality, as to constitute—apart from the public aspect of the case—a special claim upon the foundation when a decline of vigour becomes apparent.
2. That unless some provision of a compulsory character is made, governing bodies will, as at present, continue, sometimes to the manifest detriment of their schools, to retain the services of head masters with declining powers who have established a claim to an honourable retirement on a sufficient pension.
3. That, although the claim of a head master to a provision on retirement is acknowledged in nearly all schemes of the Charity Commission by a clause directing proportionate payments by the governing body and the head master for a series of years, this clause has practically become a dead letter, owing to the restriction that it shall not come into operation unless the governors "think fit, and the income at their disposal suffice for the purpose."
4. That, while in the interests of the school the clause ought to be made compulsory, the head master ought not to be placed in the invidious position of asking that the clause may be put into operation.
5. The Secondary Schools need more endowments than they at present possess, in order, among other things, to provide for the superannuation both of head masters and of assistant masters.
6. That the Committee recommends that governing bodies be legally empowered to provide for the superannuation of assistant masters, as well as head masters.
7. That the Committee recommends the authorisation of a superannuation scheme, already in use in several schools by which the governing body pays direct to a central office such multiple of 10*l.* per annum on behalf of each master as they may determine, each master paying such quota to the governing body as may be decided, the office paying to the assured at the retiring age such pension or surrender value as corresponds with the age of the assured on entry.

8. That the obvious merits of such a scheme are that governing bodies know exactly the sums due from them; that their responsibily ceases when the assured leaves their service, and without detriment to the future income of their schools, and that in case of death the amount assured is paid to the representatives of the assured.

9. That the sum assured at the retiring age should represent a fair proportion of the average emoluments paid by the governing body, either to the head master or to an assistant master, and that this proportion should be inserted in all school schemes.

10. That governing bodies should be allowed to pension present head masters of long standing at the same rates as may be determined upon for the future.

A copy of the contract between the Association and the Imperial Life Office is enclosed.

I am, &c.
R. P. SCOTT,
Honorary Secretary.

To the Secretary of the
Royal Commission on Secondary
Education.

MEMORANDUM drawn up by the COMMITTEE of the INCORPORATED ASSOCIATION of HEADMASTERS of the Tenure of Office of Masters in Public Secondary Schools.

So long as public secondary schools in England are constituted and administered as at present, it may confidently be asserted that the successful working of any individual school depends more upon the maintenance of satisfactory relations on the one hand, between governing body and head master, and, on the other hand, between head master and staff, than on any other administrative detail.

And it may further be asserted that the continuance of these satisfactory relations depends mainly on the powers given to governing body and head master respectively being, definite, distinct, and sufficient, so that the share of responsibility due from each to the Charity Commission, or to the public, is both clear and well defined.

This is an essential characteristic of the school schemes of the Charity Commission; for these assign a sphere of authority to the governing body, making it absolute over the head master, while to the head master also a sphere is assigned with absolute power over the assistant masters—a system which has stood the test of twenty-five years working.

In the school schemes issued by the Charity Commissioners, there is a designed parallelism in the clauses which relate to the tenure of office of masters, and which allow the dismissal without appeal of head master by governing body, and of assistant masters by head master. They are directly based on the recommendations of the Schools Inquiry Commissioners in 1868, whose point of view is thus indicated in their report:—

> "If the master has not the appointment and control of his "assistants it is impossible to hold him responsible for the "good conduct and teaching of the school." (Vol. I., p. 238.)

The common form of the clauses referred to runs thus:—

> "1. The governors may dismiss the head master without assigning cause in pursuance of a resolution affirmed at each of two special meetings by not less than two-thirds of the governors present."
>
> "2. The head master shall have the sole power of appointing, and may at pleasure dismiss, all assistant masters in the school."

And it is evident that the object of these clauses is not only to affix direct responsibility for the internal administration of the school on the head master, and for the external administration on the governing body, but also to afford a legal means of removing either a head master or an assistant master whose retention—though personally he may be a good teacher and of good morals—has, in the judgment of the authority concerned, become detrimental to the best interests of the school.

It may be admitted that within the past twenty-five years some dismissals have been made on insufficient grounds, but no plan can be devised in which power is not liable to abuse; and the evil which the public—apart from the individual—has most reason to deprecate is not that of the unjust dismissal of an efficient master, but that of the retention of one who is weak or incompetent; and this evil is more likely to occur with a governing body which meets at intervals, than with a head master who is daily in contact with the work of the school.

And, further, it is clear that if an appeal be allowed to an assistant master against the head master, an appeal should also be allowed to a head master against the governing body; yet it is submitted that both appeals would be mischievous, that is, against the interest of the school and that of the masters involved, seeing that any continuance of strained relations between the various authorities of the school tends to the detriment of its work, and that some individuals who work well apart do not work harmoniously together. Power must be given in such cases to some authority to act rapidly and with decision—in effect, to dismiss without cause assigned; and the natural authority is that nominated in the Charity Commission

Schemes, viz, the authority next above the master concerned. If in place of this summary jurisdiction an appeal be substituted, then it is submitted that either head master or assistant master whose appeal is successful will possibly have gained no more than a nominal advantage; for in both cases the salary is assigned by the governing body, and a reduction of salary, unless expressly prohibited by the scheme, might not improbably result; and little magnanimity in personal treament could be expected from the dismissing authority whose decision—*ex hypothesi* unjust—has been reversed. Moreover, the school would inevitably suffer, both during the appeal, and afterwards.

Nor should it be overlooked that such a master would probably lose that cordial testimonial as to his services which alone would enable him to compete successfully for a similar position in another school, where, indeed, the mere fact of his action in having appealed would—when the competitors are so many—tell against him.

But a larger consideration remains directly affecting the welfare of the school. The cases in which by the scheme assistant masters are dismissable by the head master subject to an appeal to the govering body, are indistinguishable in practice from those in which the power of dismissal of assistant masters is vested in the governing body; since in both cases the initiative must be taken by the head master, and the governing body must affirm or reject the judgment of the head master. In Wales this latter form of dismissal occurs in many of the new schemes for secondary schools, and already it has resulted that social, sectarian, and political irrelevances are imported into questions of professional fitness, and it is certain that the type of head master willing to act under such conditions must deteriorate. And inasmuch as in England also governing bodies are not chosen primarily for educational, but for administrative, fitness, it cannot be anticipated that they would prove more capable of sound judgment in professional and technical questions, and a similar deterioration of type might be expected to result.

Finally, if under present conditions a head master uses his powers of dismissal unjustly, his governing body has an efficient remedy; a remedy which as a last resort effects not only its immediate object, but serves also to make clear to all and sundry the parallelism of tenure of office by head master and assistant master, and the absolute limitation to a head master's absolutism.

This association of head masters is prepared to admit that an undesirable feeling of insecurity among the members of a staff sometimes attends a change of head masters; and the association fully recognises further that long and faithful service to a foundation establishes a right to special consideration.

With a view, therefore, to meet the possible hardship of such cases it is considered—

1. That on the appointment of a new head master, any assistant master already on the staff might for one year have a right to appeal to the governing body.
2. That after the completion of 10 years' service on the foundation, an assistant master might have a similar right of appeal.
3. That an assistant master who, with the written sanction of governing body or of head master has incurred expenses for building or furnishing in connection with a boarding-house should have a similar right of appeal, and if dismissed, should be entitled to reasonable compensation.

With these qualifications it is the opinion of this association that the powers to dismiss assistant masters without cause assigned should remain, as at present, vested in the head master.

February, 1895

THE INCORPORATED ASSOCIATION OF HEAD MASTERS.

Gresham College, E.C.,
February 9th, 1895.

SIR,

AT the annual general meeting of this Association, held at Grocers' Hall on 10th ultimo, at which over 140 members were present, the following resolutions relating to superannuation of masters in public secondary schools were unanimously passed:—

(*a.*) "That inasmuch as in the schemes of the Charity Commission the clause relating to the pension fund of the head master, being permissive, has hitherto proved inoperative, it is absolutely necessary, in the best interests of public secondary schools, that such clause be made compulsory, and come into force on the appointment of the head master.

(*b.*) "That such provision should be made retrospective.

(*c.*) "That governing bodies of public secondary schools be recommended to adopt for head masters the pension scheme framed in the agreement between the office of the Imperial Life Assurance and this association.

(*d.*) "That representations in accordance with the above resolutions be submitted to the Royal Commission on Secondary Education and to the Charity Commission."

In calling the attention of the Commission to the resolutions, the committee of this association further desires to point out—

i. That the work of a headmaster makes so great a demand upon a man's energy and vitality as to

constitute—apart from the public aspect of the case—a special claim upon the foundation when a decline of vigour becomes apparent.

ii. That unless some provision of a compulsory character is made, governing bodies will (as at present) continue—sometimes to the manifest detriment of the school—to retain headmasters who have established a claim to an honourable retirement on a sufficient pension.

iii. That, although the claim of a headmaster to a provision on retirement is acknowledged in nearly all schemes of the Charity Commission, by a clause directing equal payments by governing body and headmaster for a series of years, this clause has practically become a dead letter, owing to the restriction that it shall not come into operation unless the governors "think fit, and the income at their disposal suffice for the purpose."

iv. That while, in the interests of the school, the clause ought to be made compulsory, the headmaster ought not to be placed in the invidious position of asking that the clause may be put into operation.

v. That secondary schools need more endowments than they at present possess, in order, among other things, to provide for the superannuation both of headmasters and of assistant masters.

vi. That the committee recommends that governing bodies be legally empowered to provide for the superannuation of assistant masters as well as headmasters.

vii. That the committee recommends the authorisation of a superannuation scheme already in use in several schools by which the governing body pays direct to a central office such multiple of 10*l.* per annum on behalf of each master as they may determine, each master paying such quota to the governing body as may be decided, the office paying at the retiring age the assured such tabular pension or surrender value as corresponds to the age of assured on entry.

viii. That the obvious merits of such a scheme are that the governing body knows exactly the sum due from them; that their responsibility ceases when the assured leaves their schools, and that in case of death the amount assured is paid to the representatives of the assured.

ix. That the sum assured at the retiring age should represent a fair proportion of the average emoluments paid by the governing body either to headmaster or to assistant master, and that this provision should be inserted in all school schemes.

x. That governing bodies should be allowed to pension present head masters of long standing at the same rates as may be determined upon for the future.

A copy of the contract between the association and the Imperial Life Office is enclosed.

I am, &c.
R. P. SCOTT,
Hon. Secretary.

To the Secretary of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education.

Memorandum on the Organisation of Secondary Education in England, by the National Union of Teachers.

National Union of Teachers,
71, Russell Square, London, W.C.,
June 4, 1894.

SIR,

REFERRING further to your letter of April 20th, I am instructed by the Executive of the National Union of Teachers to forward the following statement of the views of the Union concerning the Organisation of Secondary Education in England, the Registration of Teachers, the Training of Teachers, the Passing of Scholars from Primary to Secondary Schools, and Higher Grade Schools and Departments; together with some observations, arising from the experience of the members of the Union, in regard to the inspection, examination, support, and management of schools.

I am, &c.
(Signed) C. JAMES,
Assistant Secretary.

To the Secretary of the Royal Commission on Education in England,
6, Old Palace Yard, Westminster, S.W.

I.—*As to the Organisation of Secondary Education in England.*

(*a.*) It is the opinion of the National Union of Teachers that a complete and co-ordinated system of national education is desirable, and that no scheme of Secondary Education can be considered satisfactory which (1) treats secondary schools as a separate class, (2) does not arrange that the work of each grade of school shall grow organically out of the work of the school immediately preceding it; or (3) does not provide free education

throughout the various grades for every child showing the necessary ability.

(*b.*) The Union is opposed to the principle of the creation of separate or independent authorities for the local and central control of Secondary Education alone. In the opinion of the Union, the separation of national education into compartments, and the setting up of authorities, whether local or central, for each compartment, would be harmful to the interests of education and the nation at large.

(*c.*) The Union would, therefore, most strongly urge that the local control of all forms of public education within a district should be vested in one and the same authority; and similarly, that the central control of all forms of public education in England should be placed in the charge of one and the same Government Department.

(*d.*) *With regard to the Local Authority*, the Union therefore recommends that:—

1. One and the same authority should have control over all schools, whether primary or secondary, within the locality; and further that:—
2. The districts subordinated to the local authority should be the administrative counties as defined by the Local Government Act of 1888, or any convenient division or combination of those counties.
3. The local authority should be elected for educational purposes only.
4. In addition to elected members the local authority should invariably include accredited representatives of the various forms of education in the district.

Or, alternative to the arrangement suggested in I. (d), 1, 3, and 4, the Union would suggest the following system:—

5. A committee or governing body for each recognised secondary school.
6. Such committees, together with the school boards and voluntary school committees within the same area, to elect the local authority for the area.
7. The local authority for the area to include also some accredited representatives of the teachers employed in the recognised schools, primary and secondary, of the said area.
8. The local authority thus created to have external control over all recognised forms of education in the area.
9. The districts subordinated to the local authority should be the administrative counties as defined by the Local Government Act of 1888, or any convenient division or combination of those counties.

(*e.*) *With regard to the Central Authority*, it is the opinion of the Union that:—

1. Neither the Charity Commission nor the Science and Art Department can be regarded as competent to be the Central Authority for Secondary Education.
2. One and the same central authority should have control over all departments of public education.
3. The central authority should be a Ministry of Education, consisting of a responsible minister, a secretary, and the higher officials of (*a*) the Education Department, (*b*) the Science and Art Department, (*c*) the Charity Commission (Educational side), together with an adequate number of practical experts engaged in education, accredited by the various educational bodies and representing the various educational interests concerned.

(*f.*) In the opinion of the Union the sums of money at disposal under the Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act of 1890 are not larger than is required for the purely technological instruction of an agricultural and manufacturing nation like the English; and it would be unwise to divert any portion of those sums from the purposes of technical education within the meaning of the Technical Instruction Act of 1889, to the supply of Secondary Education as distinct from Technical Instruction. The Union bears in mind the fact that Technical Education is that form of Secondary or further Education which most applies and appeals to the mass of the population who pass through Public Elementary Schools; and it is the opinion of the Union that other forms of Secondary Education should be financed, either by a re-adjustment of endowments and charities granted for educational purposes, or by special exchequer grants, or by special local rates, or by all three.

II.—*As to the Registration of Teachers.*

(*a.*) In the opinion of the Union, a register of teachers is urgently required, and the register should include all qualified teachers.

(*b.*) The erection of such a register, and the registration of teachers, should take place as early as possible and before the organisation of Secondary Education. In the opinion of the Union a complete roll of teachers is almost a necessary preliminary to the due organisation of the schools.

(*c.*) While it is believed to be in itself proper, and also a requirement of the Education Department, that teachers who at present hold the certificate of the Education Department should be placed on the register as a matter of course, and without registration fee, a fee might properly be charged to teachers certificated after that has been done. Such teachers would, of course, be informed, before admission to the examination for the

Education Department's certificate, that the receipt of the said certificate would involve subsequent registration at the prescribed fee.

(*d.*) The register should be complete and inclusive, and although it will necessarily set forth the professional qualifications of each registered teacher, teachers should not be registered in separate lists or classes according to the nature of their qualifications or their schools.

III.—*As to the Training of Teachers.*

(*a.*) In the opinion of the Union, no teacher should be recognised in any intermediate or other school supported by public money who does not hold a certificate of proficiency in the art of teaching, issued or approved by the Education Department or by an Educational Council hereafter to be appointed.

(*b.*) In the opinion of the Union it is desirable that the granting of certificates to primary teachers should in future be placed in the hands of an Education Council, on which primary teachers should be adequately represented.

(*c.*) In the opinion of the Union, all teachers should be required to pass through pupil teachership and a training college course, or to receive an equivalent amount of training in the art and science of teaching.

(*d.*) In the opinion of the Union, the provision to be made for training in the profession of teaching should be the same for teachers in all classes of schools.

(*e.*) In the opinion of the Union, provision should be made for the better training of teachers in the use of modern languages, by supplying facilities for the temporary residence of some such teachers abroad.

IV.—*As to the Passing of Scholars from Primary to Secondary Schools.*

(*a*) In the opinion of the Union, due provision for the passing of scholars from Primary to Secondary Schools will be most effectually secured under such a plan for the Organisation of Secondary Schools as is set forth above, viz.:—That Secondary Schools should not be treated as a separate class, that the work of such schools should grow organically out of the work of the schools immediately preceding them, and that the control of all forms of public education should be vested in one and the same authority, local or national. Strongly of opinion that the passing of scholars from Primary to Secondary schools can only be secured if the curricula of Primary and Secondary Schools are more or less co-ordinated, the one with the other, the Union feels that the only effective means of securing such co-ordination

would be the putting of all grades of schools in a district within the external control of the same Board of Management.

(*b.*) In the opinion of the Union, public aid of any kind should not be given to any Secondary School in future unless a substantial portion of the school-places shall be open to free scholars.

(*c.*) The practical acquaintance of members of the Union with the evils of existing systems of awarding Scholarships and Exhibitions according to the results of competitive Examinations, causes the Union to strongly favour the plan of attaching to each school a system of Leaving Exhibitions, assignable as the managers and teachers may in each case decide. There appears to be no reason why under District Boards of Education there may not be allotted to each Primary School in the district a certain number of Leaving Exhibitions; and a similar system could be applied to Secondary Schools as circumstances warrant.

(*d.*) With regard to the age at which scholars may be thus transferred from Primary to Secondary Schools, the Union recommends that a minimum age, but no maximum age, should be fixed.

(*e.*) It is the hope of the Union that due facilities, in the measure of the demand for them, will be offered, throughout all grades of schools, for securing to Exhibitioners thorough Technical, Commercial, and Modern Education. It is the opinion of the Union that such provision is necessary to a greater extent than at present obtains, particularly in the ultimate grades of education.

(*f.*) It is the opinion of the Union that in all cases Scholarships:—

1. Should provide, where necessary, for some time of the cost of maintenance, as well as the tuition, of Exhibitioners.
2. Should increase in value year by year while held by the same pupil.
3. Should involve no religious disabilities, either at the entrance upon, or during the enjoyment of, the Scholarship.
4. Should be bestowed preferentially upon the children of parents whose circumstances would not otherwise warrant the continuance of their children at school.

(*g.*) In the opinion of the Union the following considerations should apply to Scholarships and Exhibitions already existing, pending the changes advocated in (*c*) above:—

1. As in (*f.*) 1, 2, 3, and 4 above.
2. No entrance or registration fee should be charged to intending competitors.

3. The papers set at Examination for Scholarships from Public Elementary to Secondary Schools should be confined to the subjects obligatory in public elementary schools, together with one additional class-subject.
4. Precautions should be taken, as far as possible, in order to render abortive any practice of private payments for the special tuition of the competitors.

V.—*As to Higher Grade Schools and Departments.*

(*a.*) In the opinion of the Union it is very desirable to establish, in localities where they do not exist, secondary schools of the type of those schools which have been specially organised for the instruction of children who have passed the standards set forth in Schedules I. and II. of the Day School Code.

(*b.*) In the opinion of the Union the need for Secondary Education in thinly-populated districts might be most conveniently met by the grading of existing public elementary schools in such districts, so that some, or parts of some, should be adapted to the work of Secondary Education.

VI.—*As to the Inspection, Examination, Support, and Management of Schools.*

The almost unanimous experience of the 26,000 teachers associated in the Union prompts them emphatically to express the hope that in the organisation of Secondary Education there will be no attempt to reproduce some of those features of the control exercised by the Education Department, the Department of Science and Art, and the local managers, over public elementary schools, which have marred the ideals and hindered the progress of public primary education in almost an inconceivable degree. Upon the following main points, in especial, the organisation of Secondary Education should be guarded from a repetition of the errors made in Primary Education by National and Local Authorities.

(*a.*) *The Inspection and Inspectors of Schools.*—The Union respectfully urges on the Royal Commission the importance of action to secure more satisfactory provisions for inspection, in the case of secondary schools, than exist in the Government inspection of public elementary education.

The proper scope of such inspection has been well summarised by Mr. Fearon, in a passage which is its own best recommendation :—" By inspection is meant the process of seeing a school at " work in the course of its ordinary routine ; noting how it is " constructed, warmed, drained, ventilated, furnished, and " supplied with apparatus and other materials ; how its journals,

"registers, and other records are kept; what is the course of "education, physical and intellectual, which it supplies to its "scholars; whether it is conducted on the most approved "methods for economising time and labour; what is the order "and discipline; what is the relation of the scholars to their "teachers and to one another; how the teachers give their "lessons and how in other respects they are qualified to perform "and do perform their duties."

But it is also necessary to point out that the chief factor in any inspection is the personality of the inspector. An inspector of schools should not only be just, cautious, and accurate in his habit of mind; he should also be sympathetic, genial, courteous, and a lover of children. Above all he should possess practical knowledge of teaching, and should have had experience of the difficulties alike of the teacher and the taught. Now, experience has shown that whereas the school boards, when appointing advisory inspectors as their eyes and ears in the schools have almost invariably chosen men experienced in the difficulties of the work and practised in the art of teaching, my Lords of the Education Department on the other hand have almost invariably appointed as Her Majesty's Inspectors of schools men who lack such experience and practice. And whilst the work of inspectors appointed by school boards has been generally helpful to the schools, the work of many of the inspectors appointed by the Education Department has, to a very serious extent, been harmful to the schools. It follows, therefore, in the opinion of the Union, that the appointment of inspectors of secondary schools would more wisely rest with the local authority than with a minister and a bureau.

(*b.*) *The Examination of Schools.*—Concerning such examinations of scholars as those known popularly as the "Oxford and Cambridge locals," the Union has only to suggest that any insistence on examination fees would seriously hinder the career of the scholars who are transferred from primary to secondary schools by means of exhibitions, unless the exhibitions included provision for the payment of such fees.

But in view of the possible requirement that the State should examine secondary schools, the Union would earnestly deprecate any introduction into these schools of the system known as the "annual examination" in public elementary schools. This yearly "parade day," with its conditions of code regulations and rigid standards of examination, has had the most evil effect on the work of primary schools. In theory the annual examination and the standards apply to one day in the year only; in practice they are found to apply all the year round. They are the foot-rule and steel-yard of the examiner; but they necessarily become also the official guide and limitation of the teacher. They are

found to narrow teaching and hinder learning; to repress the scholar's individuality, and to paralyse the initiative of the teacher. In the public elementary school one cannot teach throughout the year, because four months or more must be spent in dull and dulling drill and rehearsal for "examination day"; and one cannot teach connectedly throughout a child's school life, because seven or eight times in the course of it an examiner tramps across the *Kindergarten* to pull up the young plants by the root.

The Union ventures to hope, therefore, that no application of this indefensible system will be made to secondary schools.

(*c.*) *The support of State-aid or Rate-aid to Schools.*—It is further to be hoped that any public subventions to secondary schools will be in the nature of a previous grant to meet requirements, and not of an after bonus or "reward," according to examination results. The "payment by results," still largely maintained by the Education Department, and the "payments on results," insisted on by the Science and Art Department, are wrong in principle, obnoxious in practice, and highly injurious in effect. It were almost better to leave things as they are in Secondary Education than to organise it on such a monetary basis. For it is obvious to everyone who considers public elementary schools as places of education rather than as shop-keeping institutions and parts of a Government machine for the distribution of public money, that payments according to "results" must be payments for the least essential and worthy effects of education. One cannot measure, gauge, and express in terms of £ *s.* *d.* the exact and varying values of the higher features of education, the *morale* and the character formation induced in the school; and even the other features of education are not, as a rule, correctly estimated and rewarded by a system of grants that vary, according to judgments that vary, concerning schools that vary in circumstances and local conditions to a considerable and inevitable extent.

Anything so elaborately unwise as the codes for public elementary schools or the Science and Art Department's Directory are also to be deprecated in the organisation of Secondary Education.

(*d.*) *The local management of schools.*—The Union would express the further hope that, under any system of local management for public secondary schools, care will be taken not to adopt certain arrangements which often mar the local management of public elementary schools. Among these arrangements may be mentioned:—

(1.) The lack of freedom for the principal teacher to organise, and for the teachers as a body to teach, on educational

lines, which so often arises from interferences with the teacher's discretion and jurisdiction by the operation of rigid regulations, drawn up by managers of schools, with the best intentions, no doubt, but often without due knowledge and consideration.

(2.) The management of schools by individual managers, or nominally by small bodies of managers, who virtually delegate their powers to one. The small school board and the "one-man-manager" of a voluntary school are cases in point

(3.) The practical exclusion of the teachers from the deliberations of the local authority, and the frequent disregard of the teacher's skilled opinion and reasonable wishes in relation to the conduct of the school.

(4.) The imposition of non-scholastic tasks as a condition of appointment to a post, or retention of a post, as teacher.

(5.) The attempts, too often successful, to deny to teachers some of the ordinary civil and religious liberties of English people.

(6.) The congested classes and crowded class-rooms so often found in public elementary schools, as the result of inadequate sources of income, or, when the sources are adequate, of wasteful parsimony.

(7.) The insufficient salaries paid to teachers, particularly to assistant teachers and the principal teachers of small schools, which arise from the causes mentioned in III. c. (6.).

In conclusion, it is the hope and strong desire of the Union that the findings by the Royal Commission may tend towards the erection in England of a complete and correlated system of National Education, and a recognised and regulated profession of teaching; each homogeneous, each based upon sound principles, and each fully and fitly equipped.

HEAD MASTERS OF PREPARATORY SCHOOLS' ASSOCIATION.

Royal Commission on Secondary Education,
6, Old Palace Yard, S.W.,
20th June 1894.

SIR,

I AM directed by Mr. Bryce to say that the Commissioners will be greatly obliged if the Preparatory Schools

Association will give them, in writing, a concise statement of the views of the Association on each of the following points:—

1. The recommendations of the Select Committee of the House of Commons of 1891, on the Registration of Teachers.
2. The desirability of making provision for *instruction and training in the profession of teaching*, and the best method of doing so.
3. Whether, in the organisation of secondary education the interests of preparatory schools require to be distinguished from those of ordinary private schools.

I am, &c.
WILLIAM N. BRUCE,
Secretary.

The Rev. H. A. Bull,
Wellington House,
Westgate-on-Sea.

MEMORANDUM by the Headmasters of Preparatory Schools' Association for the Royal Commission on Secondary Education, in answer to the request contained in the foregoing Letter. Considered and passed at a General Meeting held in London on 26th September 1894.

1. The Association will *seriatim* state its views on the recommendations contained in the special report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on the Teachers' Registration and Organisation Bills; these recommendations are as follows:—

(1.) That registration of teachers in secondary schools is, in principle, desirable.

(2.) That such registration should be based upon the suggestions contained in the last paragraph of the foregoing report.

Your committee are of opinion that the most satisfactory arrangements in any scheme of registration that may be adopted would be: (*a*), That existing teachers should not be put on the register merely as such, but should not suffer from any legal disability; (*b*), that both existing teachers and future teachers should be admitted to the register on producing such evidence of intellectual acquirements and teaching capacity as might be required by the Council; (*c*), that the register should, as soon as might appear reasonable in each case, be made compulsory upon existing teachers in the event of their appointment to teach in a secondary school assisted by endowments or public money, and upon future teachers in these, and ultimately in all other secondary schools; (*d*), that teachers certified by the

Education Department should be placed on the register, with an indication, as in the case of other teachers, of the nature of their certificate.

(3.) That the qualifications for registration should include evidence, both of attainments and of teaching capacity.

(4.) That with this object, additional facilities are required for the training of teachers in secondary schools.

(5.) That any educational council to be established, for the furtherance of such registration, should be composed of nominees of the State, representatives of the universities, and members elected by the teaching profession.

The Association agrees with Recommendation 1.

It also agrees in general with the suggestion contained in the last paragraph of the Report, and approves of registration being based thereon.

The Association desires to emphasise the points.

(α.) That *existing* teachers should in no case suffer any legal disability by not being registered, and that their interests should be carefully considered and tenderly dealt with, and

(β.) That in any register the qualifications and certificates of all the teachers registered therein should be fully set forth.

The Association agrees with the Recommendations 3 and 4. It is of opinion that every candidate who has given evidence of sufficient intellectual attainments should be required to pass through a period of probation, during which his teaching capacity would be tested. In view of the practical difficulty of establishing normal secondary schools of the higher type, and the much greater value of the experience a teacher gains by being actually a working member of the staff of a school, the Association would suggest that the candidates might be employed in any secondary school subject to the approval of the authorities, and there learn practically the details of teaching work under experienced teachers, and might have their teaching capacity tested in such way as might be found best before final registration.

With regard to Recommendation 5, the Association is of opinion that the members of council should be mainly persons practically as well as theoretically qualified to judge of the wants of secondary schools, of the methods to be pursued in such schools, and the subjects to be taught in them with the greatest advantage.

2. The Association is strongly of opinion that provision should be made for instruction and training in the profession of teaching, because at the present moment such provision is, for men, at least, practically non-existent.

While the Association feels that the best methods of making provision for these objects must be largely determined by experience and by degrees, it ventures to suggest—

(*a.*) That instruction in the history and theory of education should be given systematically at

(1.) The universities, and

(2.) At various centres throughout the country for

(A.) Non-university men;

(B.) University men who have graduated in other "Schools" or "Triposes," and who, wishing to begin teaching at once, do not desire longer residence at the university.

(*b.*) That certificates should be granted to those who have received instruction as above after examination.

(*c.*) That facilities should be given for graduating in "Education" or "Teaching."

(*d.*) That such graduation or the obtaining of a certificate should not entitle a teacher seeking registration to dispense with the period of probation and practical training already recommended above; but that, if it be so desired by the student, such period should be included in the time prescribed before he can proceed to graduation, just as a medical student is allowed by the General Medical Council to spend a portion of his time as assistant to some medical practitioner and yet count it as though spent at the medical school itself.

(*e.*) That the cost of such study and examination should be made as small as possible, in view of the serious expense already incurred by teachers of Secondary Education.

3. This Association does wish to draw the attention of the Commission to the difference between preparatory schools, in the proper sense of the word, and private schools in general, upon the ground that preparatory schools confine themselves to boys at an age earlier than that at which they enter public schools, and therefore provide an organisation of which private schools, taking older boys, are in no sense the equivalent. The Association therefore urges that preparatory schools should be put under the same conditions as the great public schools, for registration of teachers and other purposes, for the following reasons:—

(1.) The teachers in both classes of schools are for the most part men of the same class, and of the same school and university training.

(2.) The work in both classes of schools is on the same lines; the methods and aims are the same alike as to tone, discipline, and teaching.

(3.) The boys in the preparatory schools are the same boys who afterwards become members of the public schools.

REPLY FROM THE PRIVATE SCHOOLS' ASSOCIATION TO THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON SECONDARY EDUCATION.

DEAR SIR, June 4, 1894.

IN reply to the invitation sent by the Royal Commission on Secondary Education to the Private Schools' Association to furnish particulars with regard to private schools, and to give their views generally as to the policy to be pursued in the organisation of Secondary Education, I am desired by the Committee of the Association respectfully to draw the attention of the Royal Commission to the following facts:—

(1.) On the most reliable information that can be obtained, the number of private schools in England is not less than 15,000, and these are educating 750,000 pupils ranging from 6½ to 16 years of age.

(2.) Numbers of these schools are well known to the Association. Their pupils are annually sent in for the various local examinations (Oxford, Cambridge, and the College of Preceptors), the examinations of the London University, of South Kensington, and of the various examining bodies in music. Moreover, many principals have their schools annually examined by the universities and other educational bodies. There are, however, numerous schools—especially girls' schools, which are doing excellent work in Secondary Education, although they do not present any of their pupils for public examinations, many persons—both parents and teachers—maintaining that the preparation of children for such examinations is injurious to true education.

(3.) From information recently received from a large number of private schools, with which the Association is thoroughly acquainted, it can be proved that many millions of capital have been invested in the establishment and equipment of these schools, and that many principals have undertaken onerous financial responsibilities in the form of leaseholds, ground rents, &c.

Future policy. With regard to the policy to be pursued in the future, the Private Schools' Association beg to submit to the Royal Commission their strong opinion that the first step to prepare the way for the organisation of Secondary Education should be the passing of a suitable Registration Bill, and they would press upon the Royal Commission the advisability of recommending the early introduction to Parliament of a Bill for that purpose.

Registration Bill.

Central authority. They trust that in any scheme which the Royal Commission may recommend, great care will be taken to form a proper Central Educational Council, so constituted as to secure the

confidence of teachers. They submit that this Council should not mainly consist of either officials of the Education Department, or the Charity Commissioners, but that it should largely represent the universities, and other educational bodies, as well as teachers in secondary schools. They believe that some such Council, as that proposed in the Registration Bill formulated by the College of Preceptors, would be acceptable to the general body of teachers in such schools. They consider such a council absolutely necessary for the purpose of controlling and guiding such local authorities as may be established in the organisation of Secondary Education, and for securing the equitable treatment of teachers in secondary schools.

Local authority.

The members of the Private Schools' Association are of opinion that county councils, school boards, and other bodies similarly constituted should not be entrusted with the organisation of Secondary Education in their respective districts. They maintain that any educational authority ought to consist mainly of those who have had experience in education.

Establishment of schools in the future.

With regard to the establishment of schools in the future, the Private Schools' Association beg leave to urge the Royal Commission to recommend that where existing private schools are doing the work of Secondary Education efficiently, and in accordance with the wants of the inhabitants of the locality, they should not be interfered with. The amount of capital that has been sunk by private school teachers in the establishment of schools to do the work which the State has not hitherto undertaken, forms a very strong vested interest which cannot justly be ignored. Furthermore the establishment of schools at a fee lower than cost price would be detrimental to the best interests of Secondary Education.

Work of private schools in the past.

Private schools in the past have conferred such great benefits on the country, that they deserve the fullest consideration in the future. They represent the free life of England, and it is of vital importance that this freedom should be maintained. They have ever been foremost in reform. They first instituted local examinations, and they have been the pioneers in such great educational movements as registration, the higher education of women, and the training of teachers; and they are the readiest to initiate reforms whenever they are needed.

Private schools in the future.

Private schools should be recognised in the future in any scheme for the organisation of Secondary Education, provided that they are efficiently conducted by those who are properly qualified by attainments or experience, with a duly qualified staff, and in sanitary and suitable buildings. The efficiency of private schools should be judged by proper sanitary authorities, and by educational experts, appointed and controlled by a central authority, and should not be left to the decision of the local authority.

Ground to be covered by private schools.

The members of the Private Schools' Association are convinced that if a Registration Bill were passed, and the efficiency of private schools were certified from time to time on the lines laid down above, by far the greater portion of the field of Secondary Education could be satisfactorily covered by them.

All scholarships to be open to and tenable at efficient private schools.

There should be no restrictions as to the schools in which scholarships should be held, so long as these schools are efficient for the purpose for which such scholarships are granted. Parents should have the right of choice as to which schools they should select. All scholarships not exclusively restricted to the children attending primary schools should be open alike to the children attending any efficient secondary school, whether public or private.

Grants from public money.

It is earnestly hoped that no such penal clause as this, "That "no grant shall be made by the local authority in aid of any "secondary school or training institution which is conducted for "private profit," will appear in any legislative enactment; but where efficient public schools are willing to accept such grants they must, of course, accept any condition that may be laid down with regard to them. With regard to the grants of the Science and Art Department, the South Kensington authorities should be empowered to treat private schools exactly as they treat the higher grade and grammar schools with respect to examinations and to grants on examinations.

Correlation of primary and secondary schools.

The correlation of primary and secondary education is rendered extremely difficult, and almost impossible, owing to the system of education pursued in the primary schools. It is therefore felt that great care should be taken in making recommendations for such correlation; otherwise great injury will be done, not only to the pupils who would be thereby placed in secondary schools but also to the pupils who are already attending these schools.

I remain, &c.

G. WHARTON ROBINSON, M.A., Oxon,
Secretary and Hon. Treasurer,
Private Schools' Association,
86, Sutherland Avenue, W

To the Hon. W. N. Bruce,
Secretary to the Royal Commission
on Secondary Education.

Boys' Public Day School Company, Limited.

16, Buckingham Street, Strand, W.C.,
July 31, 1894.

Sir,

In reply to your letter of the 30th of April, the Council beg leave to submit the accompanying statement of the origin, objects, and operations of the Company, for the information of the Commissioners, and to offer the following observations.

In the opinion of the Council the comparative failure of the Company has been primarily due to the difficulty of obtaining the necessary capital.

In order to carry on schools of the kind contemplated at a moderate cost, it is necessary to provide thoroughly suitable premises with large class-rooms, and these can seldom be obtained, except by buildings erected for the express purpose.

They also think that the original promoters of the Company did not sufficiently realise the extent to which provision has been made for Secondary Education of boys by the revival of charitable foundations and in other ways since the report of the Schools Enquiry Commission. Moreover, a number of boys, for whom Secondary Education would be suitable are, no doubt, now attracted by low fees to the higher grade board schools.

The experiment of this Company indicates that, excluding the cost of buildings, the scale of fees charged at their schools (about 10*l.*) would be sufficient, or nearly so, to provide a sound and useful education; and the Council have no doubt that a large number of such schools are still required.

They believe that the low charges made at a great many schools under private management are of themselves sufficient to show that neither the buildings nor the teaching can be of a good class.

They think that in any system of public Secondary Education which may be introduced, it will be of the first importance to secure, by means of adequate fees, combined with whatever provision may be made out of public funds, that the income of the schools may be sufficient, say not less than 10*l.* per pupil per annum; so that the teaching staff may be adequate and properly paid, and all other appliances of a suitable character.

For this purpose they think that a competent central authority should be entrusted with full powers and responsibility, the matter being one in which local committees will not possess the necessary experience.

They think that there might be considerable advantages in the management of several schools by a central body of experience, provided that the varying wants of each locality are duly considered; and if thought desirable they would be willing

to undertake work of this kind, in case of local authorities being allowed to make arrangements with them for the purpose.

W. H. STONE (Chairman).
NORTON.
ROBERT B. POOLE.
T. W. SHARPE.
ABERDARE (President).
E. A. HELPS.
T. H. LEWIS.
JOSEPH MERRIMAN.
J. PERCIVAL.
JAMES H. RIGG.
WILLIAM ROGERS.
EDWARD JOHNSON, Secretary.

The Secretary,
Royal Commission on Secondary Education,
6, Old Palace Yard, S.W.

Enclosure.

Statement of the origin, objects, and operations of the Boys' Public Day School Company, Limited.

The Company was registered in December 1882. Prior to registration, steps were taken to ascertain the opinions of leading educationists, and inquiries were made as to whether they would be willing to take an interest in the proposal, with the result that promises were received to take up 707 5*l.* shares, in the event of a company being formed.

Subsequently a total of 1,842 5*l.* shares were subscribed, and with this sum three schools were established, viz., Kentish Town, Clapham, and South Shields.

The formal inauguration of the Company took place at a public meeting held at the Society of Arts, on the 24th of April 1883, under the presidency of the Right Honourable Lord Aberdare. A copy of the report of the proceedings is attached.

The objects for which the Company is established, are:—"To "establish and maintain in such parts of England and Wales "as shall from time to time be determined public day schools "for the education of boys of all classes above those usually "attending public elementary schools; and to supply for boys, "on moderate terms, general instruction of the highest class, "together with moral and religious training on a Christian "basis."

The course of instruction includes:—"Religious knowledge, "reading and recitation, writing, English grammar, and com-

" position, literature, history, geography, arithmetic, algebra, " geometry, Latin, French, German, elementary science, drawing, " singing, shorthand, book-keeping, drill, or gymastics."

But parents or guardians may withdraw any scholar from a religious subject or from attendance at prayers, on giving notice in writing.

The articles of association of the Company provide for an independent inspection and examination by examiners unconnected with the management, and whose reports are made direct to the examining body, copies being transmitted to the council of the Company for their guidance, it being understood that they will not be published.

The accommodation in the schools provided by the Company is as follows:—Kentish Town, 280; Clapham, 160; and South Shields, 240 boys.

The fees vary from 9*l.* to 12*l.* a year, according to age, with a charge of 10*s.* 6*d.* for stationery, and 7*s.* 6*d.* (optional, but almost universally paid) for games.

Memorandum from the Church Schools Company, Limited.

1. The Council of the Church Schools Company are in full accord with the desire to provide secondary schools wherever they are needed, and to raise Secondary Education to a higher state of efficiency.

2. The company was formed in 1883 with the object of establishing schools of various grades for boys and girls above the elementary class, in which a thoroughly efficient secular education should be given, combined with definite church teaching, the right of withdrawing a day scholar from the religious instruction being reserved to the parent or guardian.

3. Whatever machinery is called into existence to supply Secondary Education, care should be taken—

(*a*) to utilize, as far as possible, existing organisations, and to avoid needless rivalry, by means of funds drawn from any public source, with schools of proved efficiency;

(*b*) to leave room for expansion of existing schools, and the operations of individual and corporate enterprise;

(*c*) To make all scholarships out of the public rates tenable at all schools of proved efficiency having a conscience clause, without distinction.

4. The Council of the Church Schools Company would welcome some public system of inspection and examination, but

would deprecate the introduction of any regulations that would have the effect of stereotyping secondary schools.

5. The universities, with which secondary schools are so closely connected, would seem to be the proper authorities to undertake the work of inspection and examination.

6. In any legislation the denominational character of existing secondary schools should be strictly respected, and room should be left for the multiplication of schools on a denominational basis.

7. All educational endowments for Secondary Education of a denominational character should be respected.

8. In any local or other board called into existence for the provision and supervision of secondary schools, the interests of existing schools should be adequately represented.

9. The Council will be glad to offer any further expression of their views or give additional information if desired.

(Signed) WM. EMERY,
Chairman.

Church House, Dean's Yard,
Westminster.

EXTRACT from a LETTER from the ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL BOARDS (England and Wales).

School Board Offices, Manchester,
June 13th, 1894.

SIR,

* * * * *

As to the questions of policy to which, in the opinion of the association, the attention of the Royal Commission might be more particularly directed, and of the views of the association thereon, I am directed to state that in order to secure co-ordination and continuity in the important work of education the association are of opinion that there should be only one local authority for educational purposes, and at the annual meeting of the association held in London on the 3rd ultimo the following resolution was adopted:—

"That in the opinion of this association it is essential to
" the effective improvement and full extension of education
" in this country, that elementary, intermediate, secondary,
" and technical education should, in every district, be under
" the management of one body or authority so far as such
" education may receive aid from the local rates, and that
" this body should be elected solely for educational work.
" That as such educational bodies already exist in the form
" of School Boards, many of which have already established
" higher grade and technical schools, this association strongly

" urges that the English Education Acts be consolidated " and so amended that School Boards, reconstituted and " renamed ' Boards of Education,' shall be entrusted with " the management of general education."

The association are of opinion that the attention of the Royal Commission might also be directed to the consideration of the following points:—

1. The desirability that the whole of the money derived from the subsidies to local rates under " The Customs and Excise Act, 1890," should be applied to Technical and Secondary Education.
2. The treatment of large centres of population, and the supply of urban districts with Secondary Education, as distinct from the needs of rural districts. Dangers of over supply of schools for Technical and Secondary Education owing to rivalries of local authorities.
3. The importance of linking elementary schools with schools for Secondary Education.
4. The necessity of schools for Higher or Secondary Education in all districts of adequate population.
5. The provision of means, in addition to existing grants (which have regard exclusively to science and art instruction), for carrying out Secondary Instruction in schools for pupils who have passed beyond the standards in languages and literary subjects.
6. Further provision of scholarships for pupils leaving elementary schools for secondary schools.

The association are also of opinion that no scheme for establishing a well organised system of Secondary Education in this country would be complete that did not provide for the recognition and encouragement of the important work now being done in the various evening schools for advanced instruction, and submit the following points for the consideration of the Royal Commissioners—the encouragement of evening schools, giving advanced instruction, as the only means of Secondary Education as available for the majority of the people—the large amount of school accommodation (much of a special character) to be had in board schools which might be utilised for Secondary Instruction in evening schools.

I have, &c.
C. H. WYATT,
Honorary Secretary.

To the Hon. W. N. Bruce,
Secretary to the Royal Commission
on Secondary Education.

ASSOCIATION OF TECHNICAL INSTITUTIONS.

Merchant Venturers' Technical College,
Bristol, 21st June 1894.

SIR,

THE Council of the above association instructs me, in response to your letter of the 5th instant, to append the following particulars for the information of the Royal Commissioners.

I am, &c.
J. WERTHEIMER,
Hon. Secretary.

To the Secretary,
Royal Commission on Secondary Education.

ASSOCIATION OF TECHNICAL INSTITUTIONS.

Memorandum for the Royal Commission on Secondary Education, 21st June 1894.

"The views of the Association with regard to the place the institutions should occupy in relation to an organised system of Secondary Education."

The council regards technical institutions as a necessary and essential part of an organised system of Secondary Education.

The scheme appended shows the position which the council would assign to the constituent institutions in such a system. This scheme assumes that the public elementary schools will retain in their hands the training of the larger part of the young boys and girls of the country; though some children would be placed at an early age in the junior departments of classical and modern schools. Scholarships should enable the brightest boys and girls from the public elementary schools to pass into a classical or a modern school and such scholarships should be restricted to children under 12, so that the successful candidates might reach the classical or modern schools at a sufficiently early age to prevent their advent causing a dislocation of the work of those schools.

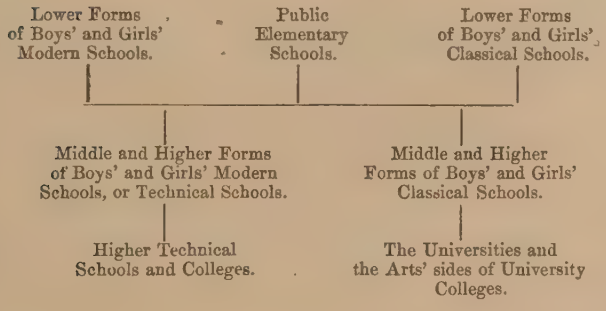
At the age of about 15, the best pupils would pass into the senior day classes of technical schools and colleges.

As regards evening schools, the council thinks that public elementary schools might retain the work of completing the elementary education of those who leave the public elementary day schools at an early age, and who have not yet finished the work laid down by the present code for the seventh standard.

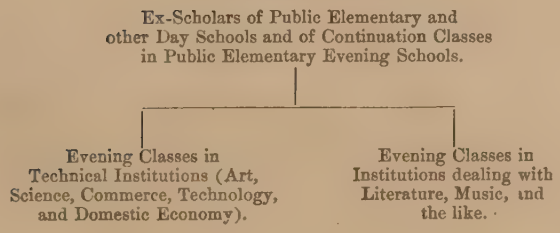
The ex-scholars of secondary schools, and the pupils of the public elementary evening schools, would proceed to evening classes in technical institutions, or in university colleges, according as they desired to extend their technical or their literary training.

SCHEME showing the SUGGESTED POSITION of TECHNICAL SCHOOLS and COLLEGES in an organised system of SECONDARY EDUCATION.

DAY WORK.


Lower Forms of Boys' and Girls' Modern Schools.
Public Elementary Schools.
Lower Forms of Boys' and Girls' Classical Schools.
Middle and Higher Forms of Boys' and Girls' Modern Schools, or Technical Schools.
Middle and Higher Forms of Boys' and Girls' Classical Schools.
Higher Technical Schools and Colleges.
The Universities and the Arts' sides of University Colleges.

EVENING WORK.


Ex-Scholars of Public Elementary and other Day Schools and of Continuation Classes in Public Elementary Evening Schools.
Evening Classes in Technical Institutions (Art, Science, Commerce, Technology, and Domestic Economy).
Evening Classes in Institutions dealing with Literature, Music, and the like.

J. WERTHEIMER, B.Sc., B.A.,
Hon. Secretary.

June 21st, 1894.

Memorandum submitted to the Royal Commission on Secondary Education by the Secondary Education Council of the Congregational Union of England and Wales.

Attitude towards organisation of Secondary Education.

On behalf of the Council and the governing bodies of the several schools (except Mill Hill, which proposes to communicate with the Commission through the Headmasters' Conference because, on the ground of its reconstitution in 1869, and of the presence of Baptists and Presbyterians among its governing body, it claims now to be undenominational) we are able to say that—

(1.) They are prepared to fall into line with a national system of Secondary Education so far as to accept, with a view to State recognition, a Government inspection which does not affect the individuality of the school or the elasticity of its methods, provided that the inspection be conducted by a duly appointed educational authority on which teachers of both sexes are represented.

(2.) They will be glad to receive the "national stamp" conferred by Government inspection and certification, without any accompaniment of grant, always supposing that to be the condition with all such denominational schools.

Views on Organisation.

1. This Council would urge the Royal Commission to recommend such a national system of Secondary Education as shall ensure freedom from all religious disabilities in regard to government, teaching staff, and the admission, monetary assistance, and education of scholars; and that care should be taken to render this freedom real and not merely nominal.

2. They distinctly pronounce against a system of new parliamentary grants or local rate-aid to denominational schools.

3. They are of opinion that girls should receive equal benefits with boys in the administration of endowments and public money.

4. The Council hope that the secondary schools of this country may yet be brought under the direction of unsectarian authorities empowered to examine in relation to a recognised standard of attainment. They look forward to a national scheme, which, while conserving local beneficiary interests, shall yet extend the system of scholarships so as to bring a free curriculum within reach of meritorious pupils of either sex, and without regard to the social position of their parents. The Council urge as the natural outcome of the expenditure of public funds upon education that the way should be made open, and not difficult, for every child of competent ability and tested industry, from the

lowest standard of the primary schools up to graduation in any university in the country.

(Signed) JOHN MASSIE,
Chairman of the Secondary
Education Council of the
Congregational Union of
England and Wales.

Memorial Hall,
Farringdon Street, London, E.C.,
22nd October 1894.

Memorandum on the Anthropometric Effects of Gymnastics at Haileybury College; by Mr. C. Hawkins, M.A.

To the Secretary of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education.

SIR,

I HAVE been asked to send you a few notes upon the effect of gymnastics upon the development of young boys as indicated by the measurements taken in the gymnasium at Haileybury College.

We have had a system of compulsory gymnastics in force at Haileybury since January 1888, and between that time and the present (January 1895) about 1,000 boys have entered the classes. Every boy is obliged to attend two classes per week for his first three terms. At the end of that time, if he is able to pass a certain test to show that his muscular powers are fairly developed, he passes out of the compulsory classes, but voluntary classes in gymnastics are still open to him daily. These voluntary classes are also open to those who are in the compulsory classes, and many of the stronger boys take advantage of them. If a boy at the end of his third term is unable to pass the test he must remain in the compulsory classes until he does, a certain amount of regular dumb-bell exercise being exacted in addition to his two regular classes per week. The test exercises upon which we rely, to indicate a boy's muscular development, are three in number. He must pull up on the horizontal bar three times with his chin above the bar, both with the natural grasp and with hands reversed, and he must press up three times on the parallel bars. These are only rough tests, but they are found to work well in practice. It will be observed that these exercises only test directly the muscles of the arms and upper part of the body; but it must not be inferred that undue importance is attached to the development of these in our system of gymnastics

We so select our exercises as to secure good all round development in all our classes, and we consider that the ordinary school games may be relied on to rectify any defect, which may still remain in the development of such muscles as are not tested by the above exercises. For the last two years, I have used these exercises to test every boy on his first entering the classes, and also at the end of every term throughout the course, keeping a record of the number of marks obtained. I find this most useful for arranging the boys in classes and also to give a good idea of what progress a boy is making. I feel sure that some very useful statistics will be the outcome of this system, when it has been in operation long enough to obtain them. At present only 150 boys have been examined during all their three terms, as well as on passing out, so I have made no attempt to generalise upon the connexion between the marks thus obtained and the measurements of our pupils. I find, however, that of 250 boys examined on entering the school, about 9 per cent. were already capable of passing the test exercises, while 21 per cent. were unable either to pull up or press up once. I find also that 53 per cent. pass out at the end of their third term. Most of those boys who get high marks for the exercises when first set, have already had some systematic physical training.

Our system of gymnastics has gradually developed, and is still capable of improvement. We have generally rather more than 200 boys in the compulsory classes, and only a limited time in which to instruct them. These boys are divided into classes according to their strength. The lowest classes are the largest, sometimes containing as many as 60 boys, and are exercised in free gymnastics, or physical drill without apparatus, and a certain amount of light gymnastics, that is exercise with calisthenic wands, light dumb-bells, and health exercisers. As the classes get higher they become smaller, and a certain amount of elementary work on the regular gymnastic apparatus is introduced, according to the strength of the pupils. About 50 of the stronger boys are allowed to work regularly round the school upon all the apparatus, and many of them become very fair gymnasts for their age before passing out of the compulsory classes. The school doctor examines all new boys, and advises as to what limitations, if any, should be put upon their work; he also advises special exercises for particular boys, if he considers any desirable.

Passing to our system of measurements. Every boy is measured when he first comes to the school, and at the end of his third term. Should he fail to pass out at the end of his third term he is measured again when he succeeds in doing so. The details noted are—

Age to the last complete month;
Weight in shirt and trousers;
Height in socks;
Girth of chest, empty;

Girth of forearm, arm straight, fist clenched ;
Girth of upper arm, arm bent and muscles contracted to full extent.

Until Midsummer, 1893, chest measurements were taken over the shirt and vest ; after that date they have been taken on the bare chest, which is certainly the better plan. The effect of the first method is slightly to decrease the apparent growth ; many boys, who were measured over thick shirts, &c., on their first appearance, wearing thin jerseys only when measured the second time. The same cause would tend to lower slightly the apparent increase of weight, but this is more seriously affected by the fact that the first series of measurements is invariably taken at the beginning of a term, the second series being taken at the end of a term in almost all cases. It is evident that a boy fresh from home immediately after the Christmas holidays will carry more superfluous flesh than he will after a term's regular football, and the same applies, though perhaps in a less degree, to boys who enter the school in other terms.

In order to get some idea of the effect of systematic physical training upon the physique of young boys from the measurements at my disposal, I have taken the averages—

(A) of all boys who have entered the compulsory classes between the ages of 13 years 11 months and 14 years 6 months inclusive ;
(B) of all who at the end of their three terms course were between the ages of 13 years 8 months and 14 years 4 months inclusive.

These particular ages were selected so as to obtain a sufficient number of boys of the same average age to give trustworthy results without departing too far from the mean.

The figures worked out—

—	No. of Observations.	Age.	Weight.	Height.	Chest.	Forearm.	Upper Arm.
		Yrs. mths.	St. lbs.	Ft. in.	In.	In.	In.
A	254	14 1·1	6 8	5 0·6	27·53	8·38	8·80
B	200	14 1·0	6 8·9	5 0·7	28·34	8·63	9·23

the age, weight, and height being nearly the same, while the chest girth shows an advantage to B of ·81 inch, the girth of forearm of ·25 inch, and that of upper arm of ·43 inch. When we consider that class A contains a certain number of boys who have already undergone some systematic physical training, it appears that these figures somewhat under-estimate the advantage to be derived from a short period of enforced gymnastics.

When these averages are compared with the general averages of public school boys of the same age, as given in Roberts'

Manual of Anthropometry, the standard work upon this subject, we find that the correspondence is almost exact in height and weight, but that in girth of chest the average of both A and B is below the normal, which for public school boys 14 years of age should be 29 inches exactly. This is probably partly due to the circumstance that nearly all available measurements are taken in the gymnasium, so that the fact of a boy being measured at school is an almost certain indication that he has undergone, or is undergoing, a course of gymnastics. This makes it difficult to compare our results with those obtained from other sources for our present purpose, a difficulty which is increased by the number of different methods of measurement adopted at different schools, and by different observers, as regards quantity of clothes worn and degree of inflation of chest allowed.

This last difficulty may be got over, to a great extent, by comparing the rates of increase of chest measurement, since a difference in the method adopted which would produce a considerable effect upon the absolute value observed, would not cause any marked variation in the rate of growth. I have, therefore, calculated the average rate of growth of 539 boys during the period including their first three terms here, and find that they increase on an average at the following rate per annum :—*

Weight.	Height.	Chest Girth.
9·85 lbs.	2·11 in.	1·74 in.

the average age of the boys observed being 13 years 8·8 months when first measured. As I can find no averages of arm girth, taken on the same plan as our own, with which to compare our results, I have not worked out those averages for these boys; but, for the purpose of this paper, I have taken the average rate of growth of a larger number of our boys in this respect, and find it to be somewhat roughly ·59 inch in the forearm and ·91 inch in the upper arm per annum for the first three terms at the school. The average increase, per annum, for boys of the professional classes who were 13 on their last birthday, as given in the British Association's Report for 1883, is :— Weight, 10·6 lbs.; and height, 2·21 inches, both slightly in excess of the above figures; but the increase of chest measurement

* The number of days between the dates upon which measurements are taken at the beginning and end of the three terms course varies from 302 to 335, according to the length of the particular vacation which does not come into that period. In calculating the rates of increase per annum I have worked upon the basis of the actual number of intervening days for the figures on p. 4 and the first table on p. 5; for the remaining tables I have deduced the rate per annum from the average increase of age in months, as shown in the first column of each table.

for public school boys of 13 years 9 months, taken from Roberts' Chart, gives 1·5 inches for the year, from which it appears that during the first year in which a class of boys is systematically trained, the increase of chest girth is about ¼ inch above the normal. I think that, in estimating this advantage, due weight should be given to the consideration that a certain number of the Haileybury boys observed have certainly done some gymnastics before they came here, and that the chart from which the general average is taken most probably includes a considerable proportion of boys who are working at gymnastics, a conclusion which I draw from the reason already stated.

In order to compare the effect of systematic physical training upon the weaker boys, who most require their muscles developing, with its effect upon the general average of boys here, I have picked out all boys who have failed to get 10 marks out of 36 for the test exercises at their first trial, since I began the examination of new boys. Out of 150 boys examined, 55 failed to reach this standard, and we may safely assume that the great majority of these have never previously been trained. Their rates of annual increase for the first year were found to be —

Weight.	Height.	Chest.	Forearm.	Upper Arm.
10·16 lbs.	2·42 in.	2·03 in.	·48 in.	·77 in.

The number of boys observed is, of course, too few to generalise upon, but the figures appear to me to indicate very strongly that some system of gymnastic training is of the highest degree of importance to boys who, from one cause or another, have failed to reach the average in strength.

Another class of boys whom it is desirable to consider includes those who take up gymnastics more keenly and devote a good deal of their spare time to working in the gymnasium. I have, therefore, selected 105 boys, not for their gymnastic proficiency, but from recollection of their having devoted extra time and trouble to the subject. The averages of these boys, at the beginning and end of the three-terms course, work out—

Age.	Weight.	Height.	Chest.	Forearm.	Upper Arm.
y. m.	st. lbs.	ft. in.	in.	in.	in.
13 8·4	6 6·2	4 11·7	27·69	8·48	8·93
14 6·8	7 1·2	5 1·6	29·41	9·06	9·83
Rate of increase per annum -	10·4	2·2	1·98	·67	1·04

showing an excess in each of these details over the general increase of boys here. I have, unfortunately, very few measurements of gymnasts taken after their compulsory period has elapsed, and have only been able to pick out 34 habitués of the gymnasium who have had their measurements taken towards the end of their school career. I give their averages for what they are worth, with the general average of public school boys of the same average age for comparison:—

——	Age.	Weight.	Height.	Chest.	Forearm.	UpperArm.
	y. m.	st. lbs.	ft. in.	in.	in.	in.
Haileybury Gymnasts	17 8	10 1·5	5 8·4	35·59	10·96	12·27
General average -	17 9	10 2	5 8·2	34·25	Not known.	

To see how far the rate of growth is maintained after the first year, I have had to fall back upon those boys who have failed to pass out at the end of three terms, but afterwards succeeded.

Their averages read as follows, the line A representing their average on coming here; B, their average at the end of the third term; C, when passing out. The number of boys observed was 152:—

——	Age.	Weight.	Height.	Chest.	Forearm.	UpperArm.
	y. m.	st. lbs.	ft. in.	in.	in.	in.
A - - -	13 8·7	6 7·1	5 0·8	27·2	8·26	8·57
B - - -	14 7·0	7 2·3	5 2·7	28·8	8·70	9·37
C - - -	15 3·8	7 9·7	5 4·4	29·8	9·13	9·79
		lbs.	in.			
Annual increase, A to B - -	—	10·1	2·1	1·76	·48	·88
Annual increase, B to C - -	—	10·8	2·5	1·46	·63	·61

On examination, these figures seem to show that, after the first year, the rate of development of the chest declines again to about the normal rate of increase for boys of their class; the previous deficiency in development having been to a great extent rectified, as may be further seen by comparing the actual values of the chest girth with those given in the British Association's Report as the general average, viz.:—

Age last birthday, 13, chest girth, 28·03 in.
" " " 14, " " 28·46 in.
" " " 15, " " 29·74 in.

The average of these weaker boys however, is still below that given in Roberts' Chart of public school boys previously referred to, in which the averages given are:—at 13 years 9 months,

28·75 inches; at 14 years 9 months, 30·25 inches; and at 15 years 3 months, 31 inches.

It has been frequently urged by opponents of gymnastics that they stop a boy's growth, an idea which seems to me to have sprung from a confusion of cause and effect, the short, compactly built man being at a great advantage over a tall man in more advanced exercises, and consequently more likely to come to the front. The argument used in support of this theory is that the commissariat of the body is limited, and that extra growth of muscle can only be secured at the expense of growth in height. I have been assured by doctors that this theory is entirely erroneous, and that whatever tends to improve the growth in one direction should be likely to favour it in other directions also. In order to test the theory by an appeal to figures, I have taken the average increase in height of all boys who, during their three terms course, have put on 2 inches or more in chest girth, and at the same time increased ¾ inch in the upper arm; for 198 observations, the annual average increase was: chest, 2·9 inches; upper arm, 1·29 inches; height, 2·74 inches; indicating, as I expected, that boys who are increasing rapidly in muscular development may be expected to increase more than the average in height.

Briefly to summarise my results, it appears to me that the figures which I have quoted prove (1) that boys who have undergone a course of gymnastics reasonably adapted to their strength, show a better development of chest and of muscles of the arm than boys who have not; (2) that the greatest beneficial effect is produced in those boys who most require development, that is, in those who have not developed properly without it; (3) that boys of slow development, who are below the average in chest girth for their height may, by continued attention, be brought up to the average in, at all events, a large proportion of cases. I should also gather that unless some compulsory system of gymnastics is imposed, a considerable per-centage of boys will never reach the state of development of chest and arms which they ought to have, and which a properly enforced system of physical education may ensure for almost all.

CECIL HAWKINS.

Memorandum on the Medical Inspection of, and Physical Education in, Secondary Schools. (By Charles Roberts, Esq., F.R.C.S.)

In order to understand the need which exists for the sanitary supervision of schools and scholars it is desirable to put aside all sentimental considerations and look on the education of children as a national industry which is a source of income to school keepers and school teachers on the one hand, and on the other, a training of children intellectually, morally, and physically, as bread-winners; or, to state the case more baldly, to consider school masters and mistresses as "manufacturers" or employers, and the children as "hands" or employés. According to the last census (1891) there were in England and Wales—

——	Males.	Females.	Total.
Teachers - - - - -	50,628	144,393	195,021
Children, ages 5–15 years - -	3,304,230	3,314,515	6,618,745
Students, 15–20 years - - -	58,853	66,046	124,899
	3,413,711	3,524,954	6,938,665

Thus, nearly seven millions, or about a fourth of the whole population of England and Wales, are engaged, either as teachers or pupils, in education—a number considerably greater than the whole population of Lancashire and West Riding of Yorkshire, where the Factory Acts chiefly run. It is impossible to classify the school teachers in order to arrive at their total incomes, but if we allow no more than 100*l.* a year each, we have a gross income of 20,000,000*l.* It is equally difficult to arrive at the gross value of the children and students, but if we allow 117*l.* as the value of a child of 10 years who may become an agricultural labourer (as estimated by the late Dr. W. Farr), we find that the school children aged 5–15 years would represent a total value of nearly eight hundred millions, and the students, aged 15–20, who may well be valued at five times that of an agricultural labourer, seventy-three millions. Thus at the very lowest estimate education is an industry which represents a capital of nearly nine hundred million pounds, and produces a revenue of at least twenty millions. This estimate includes both sexes and represents the physical and not the intellectual output of education, the aspect of the subject which I propose to deal with here.

Of the six and a half millions of children of the school ages 5–15 years, some come under the inspection of the factory surgeons, but such inspections have relation to the children's industrial occupations, and not to those of their school life, and, although a large majority of the children attend elementary

schools, which are in a fairly good sanitary condition, the whole of the children in both elementary and secondary schools are entirely at the disposal of the school masters and mistresses, as to their physical as well as their mental training during the most important period of their lives. The school masters and mistresses of the present day, whatever may be their qualifications as trainers of the mental faculties, are not prepared by theory or practice for training the physical faculties of children, and the constant pressure of inspectors and examination boards, to whom physical qualities are of no account, has a tendency to disguise their responsibilities in this direction, hence the pressing need for independent medical supervision by State-appointed officials.

Registration of School-houses.

The first step towards securing an efficient system of sanitary inspection of schools and school children, would be to require by law the registration of all school-houses and premises where more than five pupils are taken either as day scholars or boarders. Much has been said about the registration of school masters and mistresses and their qualifications, but if this were possible and were likely to be brought about at an early date, it would not touch the sanitary aspect of the question, and it could only be by the registration of existing school premises, and the requirement of a sanitary certificate of the fitness of all new premises for the reception of pupils before they were opened, that school children could be brought under proper sanitary supervision. The elementary schools are practically registered at present, and under such sanitary inspection as H.M. Inspectors of schools are capable of giving consistent with their other duties and their absolute lack of medical training, and compulsory registration, therefore, would chiefly affect secondary preparatory and private schools. The large public schools having duly-qualified medical officers attached to them would not be affected by a law for compulsory registration. I have placed the minimum number of scholars at six, because five children would constitute an ordinary family party which could be provided for in a private house, and which would be too small an establishment to be carried on for purely commercial ends.

A law for the compulsory registration of schools for sanitary objects would be consistent with existing laws for the protection of children and persons unable to protect themselves. A nurse is prohibited by law from taking charge of more than one infant without a license which subjects her house to periodic inspection, and we know how beneficial this law has been in suppressing the abuses of baby-farming. A lunatic cannot be taken into a private house for treatment and cure without a license, and every one of these unfortunate persons are subject, when out of their own homes, to State inspection. The Factory Acts provide for the virtual registration of factories and workshops, and children and young persons employed in them

are subject to restriction of hours of work and the premises to sanitary inspection, and similar restrictions might be adopted with regard to school premises and the children attending them without reflecting on the good faith of school masters and mistresses, or imputing to them a lack of knowledge which at present belongs only to men and women who have had a medical education. From a large personal acquaintance with the masters and mistresses of many secondary schools I am sure that a judicious and moderate system of registration and medical inspection would be cheerfully accepted by the whole body of the teaching profession as tending to relieve them of the worry and anxiety incident to the pressure of parents and examining boards on the one hand, and the pessimistic views of irresponsible critics on the other.

Scope of the Medical Inspection of Schools.

The duties of the medical inspector of schools may be divided into four sections, though in practice they would necessarily overlap and be interdependent on each other. (1.) In the first place, the medical inspector should make himself acquainted with the effects of school life and occupations on the health, growth, and physical and mental development of both sexes, and devise and employ physical tests for the detection of deviations from the normal. (2.) Secondly, he should make himself acquainted with the sanitary surroundings of school children when at work, such as the aspect, construction, lighting, warming, ventilation, &c., of school-houses and class-rooms, and in the case of boarding schools, with the feeding and the sleeping accommodation. (3.) Thirdly, he should inquire into the provisions for the physical education and exercises of children, playgrounds and other appliances for games, athletics, and gymnastics. (4.) Fourthly, he should see that provision has been made for periodic sanitary inspection by local authorities, &c., and the separation and treatment of the sick in boarding schools.

I.—Influence of School Work on the Health of Children.

It is unfortunate that the discussion of this subject has given rise to so much heat, and has divided the friends of education into two hostile camps, the one aggressive and denunciatory, the other passive and incredulous, resisting all proposals for change or relaxation of the prevailing methods of education. Here, as is often the case, the truth lies midway between the two camps, although I must confess that my sympathies, as the result of my own inquiries, are with the latter party. It is obvious to all of us that the education of the country must be carried on, and this would be impossible if the wild statements of the over-pressureists are to be accepted and acted on. Not only do these statements lack support; but such evidence as we possess goes to show that education, as at present carried on is, on the whole, favourable to the health of children, and with suitable sanitary supervision, school work would become the most healthy occupa-

tion (not excepting complete idleness) which children could adopt.*

School Life and the Death-rate.

In the Registrar-General's Report for 1882, some statistics were given which gave rise to much discussion at the time of their publication, and were claimed by the pessimists as evidence on their side. The Report says: "Inasmuch as school work if "it be injurious to health, would probably be so by affecting "the brain and general nervous system, it would be well to split "up the death-rates (*see* below) from causes other than zymotic "into death-rate from diseases of the nervous system, and death-"rates from other causes. When this is done, we find that the "entire fall in the death-rate was due to diminished mortality "from 'other causes.' The rate from these fell from 2·9 to 2·5 "per 1,000, whereas the death-rate from nervous affections "remained unaffected. Indeed, if a second place of decimals "were taken, it would appear that nervous diseases had slightly, "very slightly, increased. It would appear, therefore, that "while the mortality of children from all causes and from "zymotic causes, has considerably diminished, the general im-"provement has not affected this class of cases."

The statistics here referred to comprise the 10 years (1861–70) preceding the passing of the Elementary Education Act, and the 10 years (1871–80) following it, and I am now able by the courtesy of Dr. Tatham, to add a further period of 10 years (1881–90) bringing the death-rates down to near the present time.

DEATH-RATES of CHILDREN of SCHOOL AGES (5–15 years) per 1,000 living (ENGLAND AND WALES).

——	1861–70.	1871–80.	1881–90.	Decrease.	
				1st Decade.	2nd Decade.
From all causes - -	6·3	5·1	4·2	1·2	0·9
„ principal zymotic diseases.	2·9	2·1	1·2	0·8	0·9
„ other than zymotic -	2·9	2·5	2·5	0·4 increase	0·0 decrease
„ nervous diseases -	0·45	0·46	0·45	0·01	0·01

* Professor Clifford Allbutt, of Cambridge, a late Commissioner in Lunacy and a distinguished "Neurologist" (if he will allow me to use the term), in an article, published since the above was written, on "Nervous Diseases and Modern Life" in the *Contemporary Review* for February 1895, says on this subject: "The general "answer to those who prate of our over-educated and over-pressed boys and "girls is 'Fudge.' We do our best to hurt them by our clumsy and indiscriminate "methods, and we do some harm here and there; but happily there is a fund of "elasticity and *insouciance* in healthy youth which, blunder as we may, we cannot "crush. I have met with a few cases of naturally healthy undergraduates "exhausted by intense study extending over some years; but such cases are rare, "and in even these I suspect want of exercise, fresh air, and change of subject "were more to be blamed than study itself."

These figures show a decrease in the death-rate from all causes of 2·1 per 1,000, during the 20 years following the passing of the Education Act, that is to say, the deaths among children aged 5–15 have diminished one-third in 20 years, and though we have no proof, it is reasonable to conclude that the sickness-rate has diminished at a similar rate. This remarkable improvement is due to a decrease of 1·7 per 1,000 in zymotic diseases in the 20 years, and to 0·4 per 1,000 in "other diseases" in the first 10 years following the Act, the death-rate from "other causes" being the same in the two decades following the passing of the Education Act. The death-rate from nervous diseases has continued the same throughout the three decades, the slight increase in the second decade being retrieved in the third. Now, it is obvious from these figures that school work has not acted injuriously on the children to the extent of causing a higher mortality. On the contrary, there has been a continuous improvement in zymotic diseases, which have become more easily detected and isolated by the collection of children in schools, and the position with regard to "other diseases" and "nervous diseases" has been maintained. Numerous legal measures have been taken to check the spread of zymotic diseases, hence the improvement in the death-rate, but no similar measures have been directed against "nervous" and "other diseases," and consequently no improvement in the death-rates from these causes has taken place. Zymotic and acute diseases are very largely under the control of sanitary science, but nervous diseases are few in number, for the most part they are chronic affection, insidious in their onset, often hereditary in their origin, and but little amenable to medical treatment, and it is unreasonable to look for an equal improvement in the death-rate in them, as in the easily controlled zymotic diseases. The appointment of medical inspectors of schools might be expected to lead to the detection of this class of diseases at an early and probably more curable stage. One thing is obvious, namely, that as nearly all children are now compelled to attend school, the opportunities for superintending their health are more favourable than they have ever been before.

Growth of the body in relation to Disease and Mental and Physical Training.

It is a popular belief that rapid growth of body is a disadvantage and exposes a child to disease and renders him unfit for educational discipline. Within reasonable limits the reverse of this is true. It is natural for children to grow in stature at the rate of about 2 inches a year, and it is when this rate of growth is not maintained that danger of constitutional disease or educational over-pressure is to be apprehended. At the ages from 11 to 16 in girls and from 13 to 17 in boys there is a considerable acceleration of growth in stature and weight, and though

these are the most industrious years of the school girl's and boy's life, the death-rate, and probably also the disease rate, is the lowest of any period of life. Thus between the ages of 11 and 17 years the body possesses the greatest power of resisting death, the 14th year in both sexes being the year of the greatest intensity of life, the death-rate being then at its lowest, and only for boys 2·36, and for girls 2·55 per 1,000 living. The plea so often urged for the relaxation of educational discipline, because about this age a boy or a girl is said to be outgrowing his or her strength, has little foundation, and it is when the growth is checked or becomes stationary that relaxation is desirable. The following table, showing the average stature and weight, with the rate of growth and the death-rates at each age in children of the professional and commercial classes, demonstrates these important facts, which should be borne in mind by the schoolmaster and medical inspector of schools. This table also furnishes standards of stature and weight for the classes which are for the most part to be found in the secondary preparatory and public schools. Unfortunately we do not yet possess a sufficient number of measurements of children of these classes at ages below nine years to form standards, and consequently the table is blank at the younger ages.

Size of Body and Intelligence.

The size of the body, as determined by stature, weight, and chest-girth, has definite relations to precocity and dullness of intellect in children. When we examine children anthropometrically, we find that the more intelligent classes are taller and heavier at corresponding ages than the less intelligent—the most favoured classes than the less favoured classes. The following table shows a pretty regular gradation of decreasing stature and weight of boys aged 11 to 12 years of different classes of the population:—

Number of Observations.	Class of School.	Stature.	Weight.
		Inches	Lbs.
150	Public Schools. - - - -	55·0	78·7
686	Middle Class Schools - - -	53·6	68·0
181	Elementary Schools - - -	52·6	67·8
341	Factory Children - - -	51·6	67·4
840	Royal Military Asylum - - -	51·2	65·1
180	Industrial Schools - - -	49·6	63·2

As age advances the difference widens, and at 14 years of age industrial school boys are nearly 7 inches (6·85) shorter of stature, and 24¾ lbs. lighter in weight than boys of the professional classes of the same age. Still later the difference

TABLE showing the PHYSIQUE and DEATH-RATES of CHILDREN of both SEXES at SCHOOL AGES.

Age last Birthday.	Professional Class—Males.				Commercial Class—Males.				Professional Class—Females.				Commercial Class—Females.				Death Rate (all Classes) per 1,000 living, from Life Tables, 1871–80.	
	Stature without Shoes.		Weight with Clothes.		Stature without Shoes.		Weight with Clothes.		Stature without Shoes.		Weight with Clothes.		Stature without Shoes.		Weight with Clothes.			
	Inches.	Increase.	Lbs.	Increase.	Inches.	Increase.	Lbs.	Increase.	Inches.	Increase.	Lbs.	Increase.	Inches.	Increase.	Lbs.	Increase.	Males.	Females.
1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	158·58	128·73
2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	51·22	50·79
3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	26·46	27·12
4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	17·15	17·93
5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	40·0	—	38·8	—	12·52	12·81
6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	42·5	2·5	41·4	2·6	7·25	6·91
7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	44·4	2·9	45·4	4·0	5·71	5·44
8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	47·2	2·8	50·5	5·1	4·79	4·65
9	51·8	—	—	—	50·0	—	62·3	—	—	—	55·4	—	49·9	2·7	55·0	5·5	3·97	3·90
10	53·7	1·9	74·0	—	52·0	2·0	65·2	2·9	53·4	—	62·9	7·5	51·4	1·5	62·9	7·9	3·35	3·35
11	55·2	1·5	78·7	4·7	53·8	1·8	68·0	2·8	55·0	1·6	69·9	7·0	53·3	1·9	68·5	5·6	2·84	2·98
12	57·3	2·1	84·9	6·2	55·3	1·5	73·2	5·2	57·4	2·4	79·7	9 8	55·7	2·4	77·3	8·8	2·55	2·71
13	59·1	1·8	91·6	6·7	57·4	2·1	80·1	6·9	59·0	1·6	89·8	10·1	58·5	2·8	88·2	10·9	2·40	2·58
14	61·3	2·2	102 2	10·6	59·5	2·1	89·5	9·4	60·8	1·8	98·8	9·0	60·6	2·1	96·3	8·1	2·36	2·55
15	63·6	2·3	114·3	12·1	62·2	2·7	99·4	9·9	62·1	1·3	107·3	8·5	61·3	·7	104·1	7·8	2·42	2·62
16	66·2	2·6	129·5	15·2	64·6	2·4	117·2	17·8	62·5	·4	113·9	6·6	61·6	·3	112·2	8·1	2·72	2·87
17	67·8	1·6	141·7	12·2	66·6	2·0	128·8	11·6	62·8	·3	116·8	2·9	62·2	·6	115·3	3·1	2·95	3·09
18	68·3	·5	146·4	4·7	67·4	·8	135·1	6·3	62·8	—	123·1	6·3	62·1	—	119·1	3·8	3·24	3·37
19	68·6	·3	148·5	2·1	67·6	·2	138·6	3·5	63·4	·6	125·5	2·4	62·1	—	122·1	3·0	3·57	3·69
20	68·9	·3	152·4	3·9	67·6	·0	140·1	1·5	63·4	—	126·6	1·1	62·6	·4	120·3	—	3·91	4·00
21	69·2	·3	152·7	·3	67·8	·2	143·9	3·8	63·6	·2	126·3	—	62·4	—	118·3	—	4·26	4·33

become less as the less favoured classes attain maturity at a more advanced age than the well-nurtured classes. Full growth in stature is attained in the professional classes about the 21st year, but in the poorer classes not before the 25th or 26th year. Thus, just as girls attain maturity earlier than boys of corresponding classes, so the better class boys attain maturity earlier than boys of the poorer classes; when I state, therefore, that big boys are more precocious than small boys, I am stating in another way the fact that big boys are more developed than little boys mentally, as well as physically, and more work both mental and physical may be required of them.

Mr. Townsend Porter, an American writer, who has made an exhaustive study of the physical conditions of the children in the St. Louis schools, gives, among others, the following table, illustrating the relation between the physical development and the capacity for mental labour.

MEAN WEIGHT of BOYS AGED 11, distributed in SCHOOL GRADES.

Grades.	No. of Boys Weighed.	Mean Weight.	
		Kilos.	Lbs. English.
I.	59	28·83	63·4
II.	311	29·74	65·4
III.	665	30·92	68·0
IV.	546	31·43	69·2
V.	123	32·41	71·3
VI.	33	33·29	73·3

Although they are of the same age, the 59 boys of Grade I., the lowest grade, weigh less than the boys of Grade II., and these, again, are lighter than the boys in the higher grades. It may be that some of the boys in the higher grades have lived under more favourable conditions as to food, &c., than those of the lower grades; but these are factors which it is important to bear in mind in rearing and educating children. An undersized, or an imperfectly fed child is not capable of the same mental or physical work as a well-grown and well-fed child of the same age. The result is the same whether we measure different classes or different individuals of the same class, and there can be no doubt of the truth of the general statement that tall and heavy children possess higher powers of mental labour than the stunted and ill-developed individuals of the same age; and consequently any check to the physical development by school work, bad feeding, or other causes are certain evidence of physical and mental overpressure. A healthy and normal physical development of body carries with it a corresponding mental vigour, and an imperfect developed body a sluggish mind;

and although undersized boys often excel in special subjects they are not equal to the all-round culture which it is the object of education to foster. Precocity in undersized children should be discouraged, and not encouraged, as is too often the case by parents, schoolmaster, and the vanity of the pupil himself, as it interferes with the physical development of the body, and such children rarely excel when they grow up, even in the special subjects they have cultivated as children. Cultivate the physical perfection of the body and the mental perfection will follow as a matter of course, neglect or suppress the physical and force the mental faculties and failure of both will certainly follow. The schoolmaster or schoolmistress does not possess—nor can they be expected to possess—the technical knowledge of sanitation which questions of this kind demand, and it is only by the appointment of medical inspectors that school children can be protected from the dangers which surround them. The measuring rod and balance should be deemed as necessary a piece of school furniture as the desks, forms, and books.

The anthropometric study of whole schools is very instructive. In the *Bulletin de l'Institut Internationale de Statistique* for 1892, I have shown from measurements made by the resident officials the serious degradation in stature and weight which has taken place at the Royal Military Asylum and at Christ's Hospital School in the later period of school life. On the other hand I have shown that boarding-school life may be carried on without any falling-off in physique, but on the contrary with a slight and constant improvement in both stature and weight, from measurements made over a period of 27 years in the Friends' (Quakers) School, York (see *Report of the Anthropometric Committee of British Association*, 1883). In the schools where the physical development showed a falling-off, both of which are charity schools, it is probable that some errors in the quantity or quality of the food were the primary cause of the depression. Whatever may be the advantage of low living to high thinking in adults, it certainly is not beneficial to growing children, either as individuals, or collected in large bodies in schools.

Bodily Deformity in its relation to School-work.

In addition to a general deficiency of physical development, there are many special deformities of the body which indicate a defective nervous system, and which would be easily recognised by a medical inspector of schools, but would escape the notice of the present school inspectors. Dr. Clouston has studied these which occur on the borderland of idiotcy and insanity, and has thereby opened up a new field for inquiry into the correlation of the physical and mental development of children (see *The Neuroses of Development*, by T. S. Clouston, M.D. 1891).

As deformity of the body nearly always diminishes the stature, many children suffering from such defects would fall into lower grades than fully-grown children of corresponding ages, but I will here enumerate some of the physical defects of the body and their mental associations, which are indicative of faulty innervation. Congenital :—Harelip, cleft palate, deformed palate, cleft spine (*spina bifida*), club foot (*talipes*), malformation of organs, &c. From birth to seven years of age.—Scrofula, rickets, convulsions, infantile paralysis, epilepsy, stammering, backwardness of speech, squint, flat eye (*hypermetropia*), deaf-dumbness, water-on-the-brain, tubercular (scrofulous), diseases of the brain. From 7 to 13 years:— St. Vitus's dance, epilepsy, asthma, sleep-walking, megrim, short sight, squint. From 13 to 25 years:—Epilepsy, chlorosis, hysteria, stupidity, impulsiveness, dipsomania, perverted moral sense, tastes, and volition, arrested body growth, ugliness, strumous joint diseases, ingrowing nails, beardlessness, consumption, &c. This list is taken from Dr. Clouston's classification, as it does not embrace the numerous refinements of signs and symptoms employed by Dr. Warner (*The Growth and Means of Training the Mental Faculty*), and which I think are not suited for practical application to school inspection for sanitary purposes, though very suitable for special inquiries into individual cases. "If we could find," says Dr. Clouston, "any bodily or "mental signs that would enable us to say in regard to any "individual at 12 or 13, or earlier, 'He will by and bye be "'liable to adolescent insanity or other neuroses,' it might lead "us to devise such measures and conditions of life as might "be prophylactic. As yet we are not able so to read his future "definitely. The deformed palate, I have pointed out, occurs in "55 per cent. of the adolescent insane: it is a new, and, I "think, a very important, though not a sure danger-signal. "Commonly, all the form of our facial expression are neurotic, "and *the development is retarded for the age* . . . All "sorts of postponements of developmental processes, all forms "of asymmetry about the head and face should be danger-"signals taken along with a neurotic heredity."

II.—Sanitary Inspection of School Houses.

It is unnecessary, and indeed it would be impossible, to state within the compass of a paper of this kind, the details which would fall within the sphere of the medical inspector as the sanitary inspector of school premises. The inspection of the structure, aspect, drainage, ventilation, &c. would be guided by the rules common to the sanitary inspection of other public institutions and dwelling-houses, the points requiring special attention being the lighting, warming, and seating of the class-rooms. The light should be ample, even on dull days and

should fall behind, and on the left in preference to the right, but on no account in front of the pupil. Much injury is done to the eyesight and bad habits of body are acquired by imperfect or faulty lighting of class-rooms, and architects are much to blame for this, as they are often more concerned to place the windows where they will give a good effect to the outer appearance of the structure than to secure the convenience and advantage of its inmates. It is desirable also that class-rooms should be exposed to the direct rays of the sun, as sunlight is now known to be one of the most powerful destroyers of disease germs, and, therefore, of disinfectants. School-rooms should allow of not less than 350 or 400 cubic feet of air to each pupil, and, as far as possible, should be heated by open fires to aid the ventilation as well as warm the room. The seats and desks should be graduated in height to the size of the pupils, and not according to the age-grading usually adopted; in this respect the elementary schools are far in advance of the secondary schools.

In boarding schools house masters and mistresses take further and grave responsibilities on themselves, as they become responsible for the domestic and personal care, as well as the education of their pupils, and the feeding and sleeping accommodation will require careful investigation by the medical inspector. School masters and mistresses at the heads of boarding schools should be examined as to their knowledge of personal and domestic hygiene, and the inspector should satisfy himself that they are sufficiently alive to, and practically acquainted with, the wants of growing children. All systems of feeding which requires to be supplemented by home hampers or pocket-money are bad, and should not be recognised or permitted. Many heads of schools, with the best intention of doing their duty to their charges, give too little food, or food of an inferior quality, or deficient in variety, and not at sufficiently frequent intervals; or the meals are hurried over by the children in their anxiety to get into the playground. Often the meal is badly served for lack of attendance, and nearly always the younger children are (unintentionally) sacrificed to the elder ones in schools, when the difference of age is considerable. Few children in boarding schools get enough sleep, or lie a sufficient time in the recumbent position. Here again the younger children suffer from the greater attention given to the elder boys and girls when ages differ widely. Under all circumstances the younger children are sacrificed to the elder ones; their hours in school and at play, as well as at meals and during sleep, are regulated by the requirements of the elder pupils instead of by their own needs and I have, therefore, constructed the following table to show the due distribution of the time of children of different school ages in school work, sleep and rest, meals, and play and exercises:—

Time Table for School Children of Both Sexes, arranged according to Age and Physical Development.

Age last Birthday.	Physical Proportions.												School-work per Day.	Sleep and Rest.	Time for Meals.	Play-games and Exercises.	Ages.
	Height without Shoes, in Inches.		Weight with Clothes, in lbs.		Chest-girth, empty, in Inches. *		Strength: Drawing-power in lbs. †		Ratio: Weight divided by Height. Lbs. per Inch. ‡		Ratio: Weight divided by Chest-girth. Lbs. per Inch. ‡		Hours.	Hours.	Hours.	Hours.	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M. & F.	M. & F.	M. & F.	M. & F.	
5–6	41·0	40·8	39·9	39·6	—	—	—	—	·97	·97	—	—	2	12	3 (Five meals.)	7	5–7
6–	44·0	42·6	44·4	42·4	—	—	—	—	1·01	1·00	—	—					
7–	46·0	44·5	49·7	46·7	—	—	—	—	1·08	1·05	—	—	3	11	3 (Five meals.)	7	7–9
8–	47·1	46·6	54·9	52·2	—	—	—	14·5	1·16	1·12	—	—					
9–	49·7	48·7	60·4	55·5	—	—	—	15·0	1·22	1·14	—	—					
10–	51·8	51·1	67·5	62·0	26·1	—	—	15·1	1·30	1·21	2·59	—	4	10	3 (Five meals.)	7	9–11
11–	53·5	53·1	72·0	68·1	26·5	—	37·5	17·6	1·35	1·28	2·72	—					
12–	55·0	55·7	76·7	76·4	27·2	—	38·7	18·8	1·39	1·37	2·82	—	5	10	2 (Four meals.)	7	11–13
13–	56·9	57·8	82·6	87·0	28·0	—	44·2	22·3	1·45	1·51	2·95	—					
14–	59·3	59·8	92·0	96·7	28·5	—	47·0	25·5	1·55	1·62	3·23	—	6	10	2 (Four meals.)	6	13–15
15–	62·2	60·9	102·7	104·8	29·7	—	52·2	29·6	1·65	1·72	3·46	—					
16–	·3	61·8	119·0	112·7	31·5	—	58·2	31·8	1·85	1·82	3·78	—	7	9	2 (Four meals.)	6	15–18
17–	66·2	62·5	130·9	114·9	33·6	—	67·8	33·9	1·98	1·84	3·89	—					
18–	67·0	62·5	137·4	117·7	34·2	—	74·2	38·9	2·05	1·89	4·02	—					
19–	67·3	62·8	139·6	123·7	34·5	—	76·4	40·8	2·07	1·97	4·05	—	8	8	2 (Four meals.)	6	18–22
20–	67·5	63·0	143·3	123·2	35·0	—	77·9	42·0	2·12	1·96	4·09	—					
21–	67·6	63·0	145·2	121·2	35·3	—	80·2	41·9	2·15	1·92	4·13	—					

* This measurement shows the size of the body and not the breathing capacity. It is taken in the following manner:—A measuring tape is placed horizontally round the bare chest across the nipples. The pupil is told to count from 1 to 10 slowly, and the circumference is then read off the tape, the arms hanging by the side.

† Strength of arms. This is determined by a spring balance, with two handles attached to it, held in the position of drawing a bow, *i.e.*, one arm fully extended to hold the instrument, and the other to pull the spring.

‡ These columns show the relation or proportions which ought to exist in children who are above or below the average stature and weight, as well as those who are of the average stature for such age. The figures refer to persons of the general population, and are rather lower than those of the better-fed and nurtured classes.

The statures and weights given in the table are those of the general population, as we do not yet possess a trustworthy series and observations of the better classes at ages below 13 years, but they are sufficiently near the truth for our purpose, and any slight error which might arise would be in favour of secondary school children. The physique is given, as the age alone is not sufficient to determine a child's position in such a time table. A child who is much below the mean height and weight of his age should be placed a year below, and one who is a good deal above the mean, especially if the weight be good, may be advanced a year above that which his actual age requires. This elasticity in the standard is more applicable in the higher than the lower ages, but in any case it must be exercised with great care. These remarks apply equally to girls and boys, but it must be understood that, in order to its working satisfactorily, the physical proportions must be ascertained before the scale of time for ages is apportioned, as children of the more favoured classes in preparatory and high schools will, to a large extent, fall into classes higher than their actual ages, and consequently may have longer hours of work.

Many school masters and mistresses, who are for the most part creatures of routine and red tape,* will demur to this distribution of the time of their pupils, and will say that with the existing requirements of public schools and examining boards, and the scramble for scholarships and prizes it is unworkable; as providing too little time for school work between the ages of 8 to 14 years. This is indeed what the headmasters of some large preparatory schools tell me, and I am further assured by them that in preparing for scholarships, boys of these ages often work as much as eight hours a day. My reply to these objectors is that the scheme has been drawn up for the protection of young children, especially the younger children in large schools with pupils whose ages range widely, and it will be the duty of the medical inspector of schools to lay down the sanitary laws and for the schoolmasters to find the way to carry them out.

It is obvious that such educational over-pressure as exists takes place from above downwards and not from below upwards. It is the unreasonable demands of public schools, universities, and professional examination boards, consisting of persons who have no necessary experience of the training of young children, which keep the whole range of teachers, from the kindergarten and infant school upwards, in a ferment of worry and anxiety of which the children are the victims. As it is quite hopeless to reach the examiners, their pressure must be resisted in the interests of the children by limiting the output of cram by the adoption of a time-table such as I have drawn up.

School masters and mistresses are accustomed to make the younger equally with the elder pupils go to bed and get up at

* Professor Clifford Allbutt in the article already referred to says: "The "education of our children is for the most part in the hands of men who not only "ignore the science of education, and undergo no training for the work, but are in "that stage of ignorance when scientific methods are angrily defied."

the same hour, to take their meals at the same intervals and at the same hours, to work in school, or at any rate, spend the same hours in school, to play the same games, and in everything to conform to discipline which is designed for the elder pupils and ignore the special requirements of the younger ones. It is injurious from a physical, cruel from a moral, and foolish from an educational, point of view, to subject young, restless, children to the same restraints as to hours of work, sleep, and meals as older ones; and if it cannot be avoided in schools in which children of widely varying ages are educated, a limit should be put to the existence of such schools, and separate schools for children with narrow ranges of age established in place of them.

The hours for school work given in the table are intended to include class work, home lessons, and preparations, but not punishments of a mental character. Punishments should, as far as possible, be of a physical kind, and when birching is not suitable some gymnastic exercises which, while it deprives the pupil of his playtime, is physically beneficial to him. Fortunately punishments of this kind are suitable for girls as well boys, and should not be spared on the mistaken grounds that they are not beneficial when not done in a cheerful spirit. The time for school work is calculated for six days a week, from which must be deducted four hours for two half holidays. It should be distributed as equally as possible between meals and play hours in fourths of the time for the respective ages; thus, a child of seven, should work four half hours with suitable intervals, and one of 17, four one-hour periods, and so on at other ages. The morning is the best time of the day for study, and the two or three hours after a large mid-day meal the worst. In winter, the time after the mid-day meal should be set apart for games, like football, which can only be played by daylight.

Hours of Sleep and Rest in the Recumbent Position.

Home lessons in day schools and preparations in boarding schools are a constant source of anxiety and unrest to children, and often interfere with the time which should be spent in sleep. They are set by masters and mistresses with a light heart, because they have not themselves the worry of superintending them. The time is taken from either the time for sleep or play, and the lessons are for the most part done in the evening, when the child's mind and body are fatigued and unequal to mastering new work, especially in the case of home lessons when the child has not the help of a teacher or the influence of the school atmosphere of work. This is a matter of routine which requires revision and probably the abolition of an unwise and unprofitable custom. Seeing how persistent first impression on the minds of children are, it would be more rational to prepare lessons in school hours and depute to the parents the present functions of the schoolmaster of examining their children in the work done in school, and thus reverse

the existing order of things. Objections may be raised to the long hours I have set apart for sleep and rest, and it will be urged that children cannot sleep so many hours consecutively, but rest in the recumbent position is not less necessary than sleep for growing children. The circulation of the blood is to a certain extent under the influence of gravitation, especially in quick-growing children with poor blood, and the recumbent position is necessary for a due supply of blood to the brain and upper parts of the body. Moreover, growth in height takes place more freely in the recumbent than the upright position, as we often see in children confined to bed for a few weeks by illness; and all the tendencies to deformity of the spine and lower limbs, caused by constrained positions in school, are counteracted by removing the strain on special sets of muscles, by placing the body in the recumbent position. Nature is constantly reminding us of the need for rest by the way young children throw themselves on the ground, even when absorbed in games and amusements which require other positions. Fainting among school girls, when it is not due to bad ventilation or too tight clothing, is due to the retention of the body in the erect position for too long a time; and much of the inattention and incoherence in class is due to the same cause. The so-called "idle hours" of children spent in sleep and lying down are, therefore, as essential to the future physical and mental well-being of children as the food they eat and the exercise they take. The table shows the minimum number of hours for sleep and rest for children of different ages, and in the lower ages, especially, they should be extended rather than curtailed.

Time for Meals.

It is only in boarding schools that the time for meals can be strictly regulated. Nevertheless the intervals in the school-work in day schools should be ample, and parents should be impressed as far as possible with the need for the due observance of leisure in the taking of, and the time immediately following, meals. Children under 10 years of age require frequent small meals rather than few larger ones. The digestion of young children is very rapid, and the stomach becomes quickly emptied, even without the full digestion of the food taken, and such children are quickly hungry and easily satisfied. Children under 10 years should have five meals, and those above that age four meals a day.

III.—Physical Education.

Time for Physical Exercises, Games, and Play.

Under this head falls the chief part of the physical education of school children, although the term should cover all that pertains to the physical welfare of school children. In the time-table I have set apart seven hours for children between the ages of 5–12 years, and six hours for 13–21 years for play and exercises, but it must not be understood that the whole of this

time is to be devoted to athletics and gymnastics. Every school should be provided with a cricket and football field; a smaller asphalted or gravelled court as a playground, for the old-fashioned social childrens' games with balls, &c. specially suited to young children, and for use in breaks in the hours of school work, after meal times, and after dark; and a gymnasium for systematic physical exercises. Their should also be convenience for bathing and swimming, and for periodical walks in the country or seaside in pursuit of natural history. I have already called attention to the need for part of the daylight in winter to be set apart for out-door games.

With respect to the more active forms of exercises it is certain that football, cricket, and athletic contests, running, &c., do not meet the requirements of young children, and there is some excess in this direction which requires curtailing in preparatory schools for boys. For some reason not well understood children under the age of 12 or 13 cannot be trained like older boys for athletic sports. The muscles will not increase in size and harden in the limbs, in short, will not "train," and the strength, speed, and "wind" have not the staying power which might be expected from such exercises. The physical work done, therefore, is the day's supply of energy and not the accumulated energy and adoptiveness of muscle associated with training, hence football soon exhausts young children and is too violent while it lasts to be of permanent advantage. The same objection applies to all violent forms of exercise in the gymnasium or elsewhere, hence small children enjoy playing games and are more benefited by them than by athletics or gymnastics with apparatus. There are, however, many light gymnastic exercises with light dumb-bells, bars, and clubs, suitable for young children of both sexes, and they are frequently taught in schools. This class of exercise can be practised by a considerable number of children at the same time and accompanied by music, and hence they are often called musical drill. The music serves to mark the time and to amuse the children and make the exercises popular. It is sometimes a custom with teachers of these exercises to accompany them with the singing of simple airs, but this is an error to be avoided. When a muscular effort has to be made the chest is expanded, the vocal apparatus closed, and the breathing suspended, and it is obvious that it is impossible to make a muscular effort and sing at the same time. Singing is itself when properly taught, that is to say, when the respiration is properly graduated to the production of different voice sounds, an excellent exercise for the chest, but it should always be practised standing and not moving about.

There are various so-called "systems" of gymnastics for young children, but the fault of all of them is that they are too systematic and constraining to the pupil as well as the teacher.* It must be

* For an account of these "systems," *see* "Papers on Physical Education," by various writers; collected and edited by C. Roberts, F.R.C.S. London: Geo. Bell & Sons, 1891.

borne in mind that the chief advantage of exercises of this kind is gained during the time of acquiring the movements, and that they are less useful when fully mastered and carried out automatically, hence a frequent change of exercise is desirable.

After the age of 13 years the body becomes capable of training, and the sinews and muscles add to their energy from day to day provided the exercises are not carried on to the extent of producing fatigue and exhaustion. Athletic and active games are the most useful form of exercise after the age of 13 or 14, and they are so well known in our schools that it is unnecessary to refer to them in detail. They should be made the central feature of physical education to which all other forms should be supplementary. But a large number of schools, especially girls' schools, are ill provided with ground for athletic exercises and games, and where this is the case gymnastics must be resorted to. It is a national misfortune that school masters and mistresses are so ignorant of the merest elements of physical education as effected by gymnastics, and that, while they interest themselves and often personally superintend or take part in athletic games they treat gymnastics with indifference, handing over their pupils to the military drill sergeant in a gymnasium of their own, or sending them to the nearest public institution of the kind under similar military management. An assistant master, who does not know all about cricket and football, would find considerable difficulty in obtaining employment, but an acquaintance with gymnastics is never required of him. Gymnastics do not require more time to master than games, and in a school where there are several assistants, one at least should be capable of superintending the work in the gymnasium. The cause of all this neglect is due to the popular notion that gymnastics are essentially military exercises, and consequently no one but a man trained in the army is capable of teaching them. This is a profound error, as the average drill sergeant, no matter what his skill as a gymnast may be, is the worst person that can be selected to train school children. There are, of course, exceptions, but the ordinary drill sergeant is an uneducated person, who has no knowledge of physical training until he joined the army as a young recruit of 17 or 18, and whose subsequent experience has been first to be roughly knocked into shape by another man of his own rank in life, and afterwards to be employed himself to knock other rough recruits into soldiers, with a certain amount of muscular aptitude and obedience to orders—occupations almost fatal to the fine intelligence necessary to the training of the more delicate and immature body of the school boy or girl. Neither has the medical profession given the subject of physical education, as carried on in the gymnasium, sufficient attention, although most doctors are ready enough to prescribe such exercises for children. Nevertheless there is a great deal of excellent work done by a large number of persons engaged in physical education.

With the object of organising this skill, and training better educated and more competent persons as teachers of gymnastics, I founded a college in 1891 called "The British College of Physical Education." This college has not received the encouragement it deserves from educationalists and medical men, and consequently it still remains under the domination of the professional drill sergeant, and it has not attracted the proper class of students thus far, except on the female side. A few intelligent young women have been trained as teachers of gymnastics to girls and young boys, and have become attached in many cases to girls' high schools, where they are duly appreciated and are doing good work.

It would be impossible to enter into details as to the gymnastic exercises suitable for school children, as they require to be graduated to various classes and individual physiques. The employment of what are called free exercises with light apparatus like dumb-bells, French bars, and Indian clubs, being preferred to the more risky acrobatic performances on high apparatus so much affected by the drill sergeant and the professional gymnast.

Physical Deformities.

Although we possess no evidence that education, as at present carried on, increases the death rate of children of school ages, or that it produces serious ill-health, there can be no doubt that it tends to produce certain bodily deformities and defects which, with due attention to construction, lighting, and seating of class-rooms, and a systematic use of physical exercises can be avoided. Short-sight, crooked spine, round shoulders, knock knee, flat foot, awkwardness of gait, and the like are very common, and probably on the increase in schools where physical training is neglected or ignored. Systematic physical training will prevent this class of deformities, but it will not remove them when once they have become established, and recourse must be had to the surgeon for their correction and removal. This is a matter of the first importance, as cases of acquired deformity are more likely to be confirmed or made worse than corrected by gymnastic exercises. They have been acquired for the most part by an unequal development of the muscles on the two sides of the body or of a limb, and muscles which have once acquired the mastery over their opposing muscles will retain and increase their superiority by use of gymnastics; hence the quackeries associated with gymnastics under the name of movement cure, &c., should never be employed in a school except under the advice of a surgeon.

Physical Examination of School Children.

Physical education and the general physical well-being of school children will not receive proper attention from school masters and mistresses until physical excellence as well as mental and moral excellence is insisted on by qualifying examining boards

for the army and navy, the services, and the whole of the professions. As the teacher's is one of the most important, indeed is the most important, of the professions, from a national point of view, seeing that the school masters and mistresses have under their case and observation at one time nearly a quarter of the population of the country, and are, or at any rate ought to be, held responsible for the physical as well as the mental training of this large number of children, it is most desirable, in order to secure men and women who are physically fit to perform their duties, and to interest them seriously in the subject of physical education, that they should submit to a physical examination themselves, and conform to a minimum physical qualification.

The schoolmaster's occupation ought not to be a less healthy one than that of the clergyman, priest, and minister, yet the death-rate is considerably higher, as will be seen from the following figures taken from Decennial Supplement to the 45th Annual Report of the Registrar General.

Occupation (Males only).	Mean Annual Death-rate per 1,000 living.			
	1860–61–71 (3 years).		1880–81–82 (3 years).	
	Age 25–45.	Age 45–65.	Age 25–45.	Age 45–65.
Clergymen, priests, ministers -	5·96	17·31	4·64	15·93
Schoolmasters, teachers - -	9·82	23·56	6·41	19·84

The marked difference here shown in the death-rate to the disadvantage of the schoolmaster and teacher is not due to the less healthy occupation, but to the admission into the ranks of the teacher of persons of a less healthy constitution and lower vitality, and there can be no doubt that men often become teachers whose health and physique disqualifies them for other occupations, and it is obvious that persons who are themselves unequal to physical training and exercise will be lukewarm supporters of the physical education and training of their pupils, and indifferent to their periodic physical examination.*

I submit the following table as an average standard of physical proportions for young school masters and mistresses (and, indeed, all professions) of the ages 19 to 23 years. It is constructed for the most part from measurements made on students in Amhurst, Holyock, and Wellesley Colleges, U.S.A., by Dr. Hitchcock and Miss Wilson, medical superintendent of the gymnasium attached to the colleges. The students are drawn from the general population, and the measurements are rather below that of our English university students, and they are

* The remarkable decrease in the death-rates of schoolmasters and teachers during the past 20 years, as shown in this table, is evidence if more were required of the increasing healthiness of school work. The death-rate of clergymen, &c., is the lowest of any class or occupations in this country at the ages given above.

therefore, better suited to school teachers in this country, many of whom are not university men. The figures are trustworthy, as I have tested them in many respects by similar measurements made in this country. The table contains many details which are not necessary for determining the physical qualifications of young men and women as school masters and mistresses, but I have allowed them to stand, as they furnish many interesting and useful details to the scientific student of anthropometry. The unnecessary measurements are printed in italics. It would, perhaps, be unfair to expect a school master or mistress to come up to the averages of this table, but they should not fall far short of them, and the proportion between the stature, weight, and chest girths, should be insisted on. In many cases a medical examination of the internal organs would be necessary, but this would be of a technical character which need not be explained here.

TABLE of MEASUREMENTS of MALE and FEMALE COLLEGE STUDENTS of the Ages 19, 21, and 21–22 Years.

—	"Averages" of 2,000 Male Students of the Average Age of 21 Years, 1 Month.		"Averages" of 326 Male Students 21–22 Years old.		"Averages" of 500 Males of the Average Age of 19 Years.		"Averages" of 500 Females of the Average Age of 19 Years.		Difference between Male and Female of the Age of 19 years.
	Metric System.	English System.	Metric.	English.	Metric System.	English System.	Metric.	English.	English.
Weight—Without Clothes	Kilos. 61·2	Lbs. 134·9	Kilos. 63·1	Lbs. 138·8	Kilos. 60·7	Lbs. 133·8	Kilos. 55·2	Lbs. 121·6	Lbs. 11·2
Height—Standing	Metres. 1·725	Inches 67·9	Metres 1·726	Inches. 67·9	Metres. 1·727	Inches. 67·9	Metres 1·591	Inches 62·6	Inches 5·3
Sternum	1·410	55·5	1·407	55·3	1·415	56·	1·276	50·2	5·8
Naval	1·030	40·6	1·025	40·4	1·037	40·8	937	36·8	4·0
Pubes	860	33·9	864	34·0	862	33·9	784	30·8	3·1
Knee	476	18·7	477	18·7	476	18·7	422	16·6	2·1
Sitting	903	35·5	903	35·5	898	35·3	825	32·4	2·9
Girth—Head	572	22·5	572	22·5	565	22·2	561	22·	·2
Neck	349	13·8	356	14·0	350	13·7	323	12·7	1·0
Chest empty	880	34·6	892	35·1	870	34·2	750	29·5	4·7
Chest full	927	36·5	933	36·7	924	36·3	801	31·5	4·8
Belly	724	28·5	725	28·5	729	32·7	662	26·	2·7
Hips	893	35·1	898	35·3	887	34·9	846	33·3	1·6
Right Thigh	517	20·3	521	20·5	501	19·7	531	20·9	1·2
Left Thigh	512	20·1	519	20·4	503	19·8	531	20·9	1·1
Right Knee	361	14·2	359	14·2	359	14·1	353	13·8	·3
Left Knee	359	14·1	358	14·1	358	14·1	351	13·8	·3
Right Calf	359	1 ·1	350	13·8	344	13·5	337	13·2	·3

—	"Averages" of 2,000 Male Students of the Average Age of 21 Years, 1 Month.		"Averages" of 326 Male Students 21–22 Years old.		"Averages" of 500 Males of the Average Age of 19 Years.		"Averages" of 500 Females of the Average Age of 19 Years.		Difference between Male and Female of the Age of 19 years.
	Metric System.	English System.	Metric.	English.	Metric System.	English System.	Metric.	English.	English.
	Metres	Inches	Metres	Inches	Metres	Inches	Metres	Inches	Inches
Left Calf	349	13·8	348	13·7	343	13·4	336	13·2	·2
Right Instep	245	9·6	244	9·6	245	9·6	214	8·4	1·2
Left Instep	242	9·5	243	9·6	243	9·5	212	8·3	1·2
Upper Right Arm	257	10·1	264	10·3	255	10·0	248	9·7	·3
Upper Right Arm Contracted.	295	11·6	331	11·8	291	11·4	255	10·	1·4
Upper Left Arm	253	9·9	259	10·2	249	9·8	244	9·6	·2
Right Elbow	251	9·8	253	9·9	249	9·8	219	8·6	1·2
Left Elbow	247	9·7	249	9·8	244	9·6	219	8·6	1·0
Right Forearm	267	10·5	266	10·5	260	10·2	218	8·6	1·6
Left Forearm	261	10·2	259	10·2	254	10·0	216	8·5	1·5
Right Wrist	166	6·5	166	6·5	165	6·4	147	5·7	·7
Left Wrist	165	6·5	165	6·5	164	6·4	146	5·7	·7
Breadth—Head	155	6·1	155	6·1	154	6·0	147	5·8	·2
Neck	108	4·2	109	4·3	108	4·2	90	3·5	·7
Shoulders	430	16·9	431	16·9	431	16·9	364	14·3	2·6
Nipples	198	7·8	200	7·9	193	7·6	188	7·4	·2
Waist	250	9·8	256	10·1	249	9·8	210	8·2	1·6
Hips	323	12·7	327	12·9	326	12·8	318	12·5	·3
Right Shoulder to Elbow	373	14·7	374	14·7	373	14·6	335	13·2	1·4
Left Shoulder to Elbow	371	14·6	374	14·7	371	14·6	334	13·1	1·5
Right Elbow to Tip of Finger.	461	18·1	462	18·1	462	18·1	421	16·6	1·5
Left Elbow to Tip of Finger.	459	18·1	459	18·1	459	18·0	418	16·4	1·6
Length—Right Foot	260	10·2	261	10·2	261	10·2	229	9·0	1·2
Left Foot	259	10·2	260	10·2	260	10·2	229	9·0	1·2
Stretch of Arms	1·780	70·1	1·794	70·6	1·787	70·3	1·603	63·1	7·2
Horizontal Length	1·732	68·2	1·738	68·4	—	—	—	—	—
	Kilos.	Lbs.	Kilos	Lbs.	Kilos.	Lbs.	Kilos.	Lbs.	Lbs.
Strength—Back	137	302	146	321	126·2	278·0	49·1	108·0	·170
Legs	166	365	172	378	152·8	336·8	77·1	149·4	187·4
Right Forearm	41·5	91	41·5	91·3	38·7	85·3	22·0	48·4	36·9
Left Forearm	38·1	84	39·5	86·9	35·46	78·3	19·2	42·3	36·0
Capacity of Lungs	*3·77	†230	4·23	·250	4·12	251·4	2·39	145·8	105·6

* Litres. † Cubic Inches.

If we could get the school master and mistress interested in this matter of physical examination of the body, the whole population would soon be brought under its influence, as every school would have a set of apparatus for the physical examination of the pupils, and the pupils, in their turn, would carry the work to the colleges, and into their daily life. Failing a voluntary effort of this kind, physical examinations should be made compulsory in every State-registered school.

The only apparatus required for school purposes, are a measuring rod, measuring tape, a weighing machine, and one of the many forms of the dynamometer and spirometer for testing the strength and the capacity of the chest, but the latter instrument is not essential. The measurements usually made are the standing and sitting height, span of arms, chest girth—full and empty—weight, and strength; but extensive observation has shown that two of these, viz., the sitting height and span of arms are not necessary, as they agree with the other measurement so uniformly, when an average is taken, as to be of no individual value.

Considerable attention has been given to physical measurement of boys in some of our large public schools, notably Marlborough, Cheltenham, King Edward's School, Birmingham, Rugby, Giggleswick, &c., and we possess a large body of statistics available as standards for this class, but little attention has been given to the subject in preparatory schools, and, consequently, we have few data for standards of comparison of the better classes, below the age of 13 or 14 years. I have already given the stature and weight of children of school ages of the general population, and incomplete standards for the professional and commercial classes. It must be borne in mind that children of the well-nurtured classes, mature physically more quickly than those of the poorer and ill-fed classes, and that the former are at corresponding ages taller and heavier. There are important differences in the two sexes also, which are as follows:—

1. From birth to the age of five years, the rate of growth is the same in both sexes, girls being a little shorter in stature, and lighter in weight at corresponding ages.
2. From 5 to 10 years, boys grow a little more rapidly than girls, the difference being due to a check in the growth of girls.
3. From 10 to 15 years, girls grow more rapidly than boys, and at the ages $11\frac{1}{2}$ to $14\frac{1}{2}$ are actually taller, and from $12\frac{1}{2}$ to $15\frac{1}{2}$ years actually heavier than boys. The difference is due to a check in the growth of boys, as well as a considerable acceleration in the growth of girls.
4. From 15 to 20 years, boys again take the lead, and grow at first rapidly, and gradually slower and complete their growth about the 23rd year. After 15 years, girls grow very slowly, and attain their full stature about the 20th year.

5. The chest-girth in males increases at a rate similar to that of the weight, but has no definite relation to the stature.
6. The strength of males increases rapidly from 12 to 19 years, and at a rate similar to that of the weight, more slowly and regularly up to 30 years, after which it declines at an increasing rate to 60 years. The strength of females increases at a more uniform rate than that of males from 9 to 19 years, still more slowly to 30, after which it falls off in a manner similar to males. The curves of strength for the two sexes are not parallel; at 11 years, females are weaker than males by 22 lbs., and at 20, by 36 lbs. This is the strength of arm, as in drawing a bow.

IV.—Personal Health and Provision for Sick School Children.

It is unnecessary to enter here into the question of the fitness of individuals for school life, or to describe the diseases incident to it. The fitness of children to be sent to schools must rest with parents and their family doctor on the one hand, and with the schoolmaster and his medical adviser on the other; and the inspection and isolation of children suffering from infectious diseases must rest, as at present, with the local authorities and their medical officer of health. It is essential, however, that every school should possess hospital accommodation, in a building separate from the main structure, if possible, for the treatment of ordinary cases of illness and accident, and for the temporary isolation of infectious cases, as such cases cannot be treated properly in the ordinary school dormitory; and it would be the duty of the State Inspector to see that proper provision was made in this respect. It would also be his duty to call the master's or mistress's attention to cases which were suffering in health from the strain of school work or insanitary surroundings, as well as to report on them and the sanitary condition of school houses and scholars to the department of the State which employed him.

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Memorandum on the Medical Inspection of Secondary Schools for Girls by Miss Julia Cock, M.D.

As my knowledge and experience of physical education is derived from actual work in Secondary Schools for girls, the following remarks on the subject will apply altogether to these schools, and will be concerned more especially with medical inspection, and its bearing on the health and physical development of school girls.

Need for reform in gymnastic work in schools.

I.—It seems clear that in gymnastic exercises the most simple and available means of supplying a systematic physical training to town-bred girls is to be found, and that the school is the appropriate place in which such training can be carried on. In England, however, there are at present two grave defects in this branch of education which go far towards neutralising its value, and narrowing its sphere of usefulness. These are—

(*a*) the imperfect training of nearly all teachers of gymnastics, both in the practical and scientific part of their subject, and the absence of an universally recognised and uniform standard of excellence in such training ;

(*b*) the absence of any guarantee of safety and efficiency in the application of the exercises, such as can be supplied by the systematic medical inspection of all school children taking part in gymnastic classes.

Need for systematic medical inspection.

II.—Every school where gymnastics are taught should possess some system by which a careful watch is kept upon the growth and development of every pupil. The exact method adopted will, of course, vary according to circumstances, but it should include weight-taking, measurements of the trunk and head, tests for muscular strength, and for the special senses. Each pupil should be seen on entering the school, and kept under observation through the whole of her school life. The results should be recorded in suitable books arranged so as to allow of ready reference and comparison, and in such a manner as to show at a glance a more or less complete physical record of each pupil. (A specimen page of a suitable book for recording results is appended.) The observations should be made by a competent doctor, and, in the case of girls' schools, there are advantages in having a medical woman as inspector, rather than a medical man. The advantages to be obtained from systematic medical inspection are chiefly as follows :—

(*a.*) *That when the exact physical needs and peculiarities of each girl are known her gymnastic work can be so directed as to be of the greatest possible service to her.*

The chief ways in which town-bred girls show failure of healthy growth are in the direction of:—

1. Generally poor physique.
2. Lateral spinal curvature, and flat foot. Very much can be done to remedy these defects by the intelligent direction of their gymnastic exercises, so as to obtain for each girl the physical training best calculated to help her towards healthy growth.

(*b.*) *That danger in the use of the exercises should be avoided.* There are probably in every great school a certain proportion of children for whom gymnastic exercises are altogether inappropriate, either for a time or permanently. These physical disabilities are of various kinds, and need not here be particularised, but one of the striking instances among girls is to be found in various conditions of the heart and circulation. In a tabulation of 1,539 examinations of school girls extending over 11 years, I find that I noted 61 cases in which for this reason I considered gymnastic work undesirable. These cases include—

1. Congenital heart disease.
2. Acquired heart disease of rheumatic origin.
3. Cases of more or less temporary failure of health directly affecting the heart, and among these the most important are severe forms anæmia, and imperfect convalescence from acute illnesses.

A grave error of judgment is committed when such children are permitted to join in gymnastic classes, and incalculable service can be rendered them by so directing their life as to shield them from possible danger, and place them in an environment as favourable as possible to healthy existence.

(*c.*) *That the eyes of pupils should be tested,* and where defects of vision are found to be present, that the attention of parents should be drawn to the fact, with a view of obtaining for the child suitable glasses. There is no single cause from which school children suffer so much or so frequently, as from uncorrected defects of vision. These are a very common cause of headache, often severe, and recurring whenever study is attempted. In the same tabulation of 1,539 examinations, I find 82 cases of uncorrected defects of vision. These are exclusive of girls wearing glasses when they come to school, so the importance of this branch of the subject is seen to be very great, both by reason of numbers, and also because of the direct bearing which errors of vision have on the quality of the school work of the child.

(*d.*) *That a right direction may be given to a pupil's education suggested by what appears to be her physical capability.* It may be said that it is the province of the parents to decide upon each girl's career and upon the occupation most appropriate for her. It is undoubtedly true that this is the province of the parents, but the wider knowledge and experience possessed by the medical inspector is of signal service in suggesting to the parents considerations which may make the choice at once wise and possible of fulfilment. At one time it was my duty to examine as to physical fitness candidates for appointments in one of the Government offices which employs women clerks. In many cases the educational test required of candidates was satisfactorily passed by those whose physique gave so little promise of being equal to the work of the office that it was necessary to reject them purely on this ground. This disappointment and waste of valuable time might have been spared them if during their school life it had been pointed out that their poor physical development made it unwise to select as a future for them the life of a city clerk. It seems particularly necessary, if much public money is not to be wasted, that children coming up to secondary schools with scholarships from board schools should have the advantage of medical inspection, and that their future should be planned with some reference to their physical as well as mental capabilities. Scientific physical training can only come into the lives of children of the lower middle classes through their school life in some such way as I have indicated. It is indeed the only chance for the great mass of workers who most need such help.

Objections which have been urged to the system of systematic medical inspection.

III.—Various objections have been suggested to the medical inspection of schools, and perhaps the best collective answer to these is to be found in the fact that in two of the largest girls' schools in London the system of medical inspection has been actually carried on since 1882 with the best results. To take the objections more in detail:—

(*a.*) *As to expense.*—At the North London Collegiate School the average number of pupils is 470. In order to keep these girls under observation it is found that the medical inspector must attend from 12 to 15 hours every term. The fee will vary with circumstances, the very lowest would be at the rate of 1*l.* 1*s.* an hour. Besides this the cost of the clerk's time (about 60 hours a term) may be reckoned as about 3*l.* 15*s.* Stationery, &c., 1*l.* 10*s.* A small collection of anthropometric instruments for the inspector's use to be purchased once for all for each school would cost about 20*l.* The

work of the clerk is very important in carrying out the system of medical inspection with as little waste of time as possible. Her duty is to prepare before each of the doctor's visits lists of the pupils who are to come up for examination. So far as possible it is arranged for the girls to be seen by the doctor during recreation or drill time, so that the actual work of the classes is interfered with but little. The rough notes of the doctor are also copied into the record books by the clerk, and all correspondence, &c., arising in connexion with the work is done by her.

(*b.*) *As to interference with the functions of the home doctor.*—I would state emphatically that the medical inspection of schools on the lines I have indicated ought not to encroach in the slightest degree upon the province of the home doctor. The inspector is an official of the school whose duty it is to direct the work of physical education within its walls. If in the course of the school inspection any abnormal condition in a child is found to exist requiring medical treatment the parents are informed, and on them devolves the responsibility of placing her under appropriate medical care. Under no circumstances would such treatment form part of the duty of the school inspector, *as such*. It is sometimes suggested that medical certificates from the home doctors of pupils are all that is necessary for the regulation of the school life of each child. To this I would reply that experience shows that certificates from the doctors of pupils are of limited utility from the point of physical education. Such certificates are given by persons who are necessarily not as a rule familiar with the details of the work and organization of the school, and are therefore expressions of opinion based on an imperfect knowledge of the whole circumstances, and as such are not of high value for the purposes of the school. Moreover, certificates from the doctors of pupils are given in a very small minority of cases, and cannot from the point of view of physical education take the place, in the least degree, of a systematic inspection of every girl throughout the whole course of her school life.

(*c.*) *That the parents would regard the medical inspection of their children on the part of the school as an unnecessary impertinence.*—As a matter of fact, the large majority of parents are grateful for the interest shown in their children, and are quick to appreciate the benefit of the medical inspection. Their permission is always asked before the examination is made, and it is open to any parent to refuse to give it. Many thoughtful mothers feel acutely their need of help in

this matter, and are looking anxiously for improvement in the physical side of school life. It is indeed not too much to hope that in the near future serious attention will be given to the systematic physical training of school girls, and that greatly needed reforms will be introduced into this most important part of education.

JULIA COCK, M.D.,
Physician, New Hospital for Women,
Medical Inspector, North London Collegiate School and Camden School for Girls.
7, Upper Wimpole Street, W.,
December, 1894.

Name _____ *No* _____

		Date.	Date.	Date.	Date.
	Age				
	Height				
	Weight				
HEAD.	Antero posterior diameter				
	Transverse diameter				
	Circumference				
	Vault				
SIGHT.	Vision { Right / Left				
	Astigmatism { Right / Left				
	Colours				
CHEST.	Circumference				
	Condition of lungs				
	Condition of heart				
	Vital capacity				
	Spine				
	Feet				
	Circumference of— Stays waist				
	Vest waist				
MUSCULAR POWER.	Power of grasp { Right / Left				
	Power of back muscles				

GENERAL REMARKS.

A.—Memorandum on the Education of Working Girls.

B.—Report on the Acland School Club, 1893–4.

A.—Memorandum on the Education of Working Girls.

Aim of education.

§1. One of the most important considerations to be held in view in organising a system for the further education of girls from elementary schools, as compared with that to be provided for girls in middle-class schools, is the great difference that must necessarily exist in the aims of education in the two cases.

The great majority of girls leaving elementary schools during the period available for Secondary Education among middle-class girls, viz., from about 14 to 18 years of age, are occupied in the factory or workshop. They are working girls who can only receive instruction in their leisure hours, not girls whose only work is to receive instruction.

The middle-class girl can only hope to earn a living sufficient for the standard of her class by the exercise of trained intelligence. If of merely average ability and energy, she is inclined to hope that by marriage she may escape from working for a livelihood altogether. Keeping in view her great opportunities for learning domestic management at home, the probability that she may never marry, and the importance of mental culture to her under any circumstances, the teacher of the middle-class girl has to aim at turning her thoughts rather away from marriage than towards it.

With working girls the position is reversed. They work in girlhood as a matter of course, and unskilled manual work is fairly easy to obtain. The probability of marriage in their case amounts almost to a certainty, but their ignorance of domestic management is extreme. On the other hand, the only two large industries in which special technical training would be of advantage to them, are domestic service and dressmaking; in factory industries, where sub-division of labour is essential, technical education is of little value to girls, although general intelligence and thoroughness make themselves felt even in the most mechanical operations.

I am therefore of opinion that any system of education for working girls should have for its object their training for the responsibilities of married life. To guard against misapprehension, I should add that in such a training I would include, not merely domestic economy and the laws of health, but English literature and music.

The education of the middle-class school seems to me, therefore, wholly unsuited to the needs of working girls, and the

attempt to draft them in large numbers to such schools by means of scholarships a mistaken policy, except (1) in cases where the girl shows ability remarkable even amongst girls who have had greater advantages, and (2) in the case of girls intending to become teachers in the elementary schools.

Hours of labour.

§2. The great practical difficulty in carrying out any scheme for the further education of working girls lies in the hours of labour permitted by law. Young persons between 14 and 18 may be employed 12 hours a day (inclusive of 1½ hours for meals), except on Saturdays, when 8 hours may be worked. In addition to this, if engaged in the clothing and many other trades, on 48 nights in the year they may be employed 2 hours longer. A child of 14 may therefore be engaged at the factory from 8 a.m. to 8 p.m., and on several nights from 8 a.m. to 10 p.m. It is not surprising, therefore, that girls worn out by 12 hours in the factory or workshop do not care to exert themselves further, or that those who do attend the classes late at night find it difficult to profit by them, except in so far as they are amused by them.

Per-centage of girls from 10 to 15 who are occupied.

§3. There are very marked local differences in the extent to which girls obtain regular employment on leaving school. Statistics of the proportion of girls of 14 who are occupied are not available, but the census statistics showing the proportion of girls between 10 and 15 returned as occupied bring out very clearly the local differences.

In Preston, Burnley, Rochdale, Halifax, and Blackburn from 50 to 58 per cent. were returned as occupied in 1891; in Bury, Bradford, and Bolton between 40 and 50 per cent.; in Wigan, Oldham, and Stockport between 30 and 40 per cent.; no large towns in any counties outside Lancashire, Cheshire, and Yorkshire returning over 30 per cent. as occupied. Returns for Leeds, Coventry, Nottingham, Hanley, Northampton, Huddersfield, and Leicester showed between 20 and 30 per cent.; for Barrow-in-Furness, Derby, Bath, Norwich, Ipswich, Aston Manor, Walsall, Birmingham, Salford, Manchester, and Warrington, between 15 and 20 per cent. The 32 other large towns of England and Wales all showed less than 15 per cent. of girls between 10 and 15 as occupied. In residential towns the proportion of working class girls occupied is obscured by the presence of considerable numbers of the middle class. If the proportion of domestic servants to population may be taken as a test of a working class or middle-class population, the town in the former group with the smallest proportion of girls occupied is Tottenham with 6 per cent., Leyton and West Ham also showing a low per-centage.

The excessive numbers in Lancashire towns and in the Midland factory towns are largely due to the employment of half-timers. This system carries with it the disadvantage that full time is worked at the first opportunity. Girls in the textile industries are therefore, on leaving school, instantly subjected to work for hours as long as those permitted to adult women, and

this at the most critical period of a girl's life, when physical overstrain renders mental work most difficult. There are, however, certain advantages in these northern towns with regard to hours of labour. Overtime is not permitted in the textile industries, the actual hours worked are 10 instead of 10½ hours a day, two hours' interval being given in the 12 hours' day; and the early-rising habits prevailing make it possible for the mills to close at 6 o'clock or earlier, if some of the time prescribed for meals be given at the end of the day's work. Classes can therefore be held at moderately reasonable hours.

In the south of England, and in towns where there are few factories, and the demand for female labour, except in domestic service and dressmaking, is much less than in the northern and midland factory towns, girls do not always obtain employment immediately on leaving school, and such work as they do is often of a very casual nature, such as nursing a baby, running errands, or outdoor domestic service. Children in those few months of idleness or irregular work often suffer permanent moral injury, and the evils of the enforced leisure and irregular habits are most pronounced in seaport towns, Liverpool and the neighbourhood of the London docks being especially noticeable in this connexion. In districts such as these want of time would not be the great obstacle to the success of any attempt to induce elementary scholars to attend classes on leaving school; and nowhere is domestic training more needed.

Per-centage of girls from 15 to 20 who are occupied.

§4. The statistics of occupation of girls from 15 to 20 years of age, omitting students, give the best indication of local characteristics.

Taking first the South-Eastern, South Midland, Eastern, and South-Western counties, containing 16 large towns, Tottenham and Leyton show the lowest per-centage of girls between 15 and 20 employed, (59 per cent.,) followed by West Ham and Croydon (61), Southampton (62), Portsmouth (65), Devonport and Plymouth (66), Hastings, Reading, and Willesden (67), Brighton (69), Bath (74), Norwich (82), Ipswich and Northampton (83); South London returns 65 per cent., West London 70, North London 71, East London 74, and Central London 78.

In the West and North Midland counties the per-centage rises, but West Bromwich, with only 52 per cent. and Grimsby with 58 come lower than Tottenham; the rest come in the following order:—Wolverhampton (64), Bristol (74), Walsall and Derby (75), Aston (78), Birmingham (80), Coventry (82), Nottingham (83), Hanley (86), and Leicester (90).

The per-centage is still higher in Lancashire and Cheshire, St. Helens (57), Birkenhead (59), and Liverpool (64) stand apart from the other towns, viz., Warrington (74), Barrow-in-Furness (78), Salford (81), Manchester (82), Wigan (87), Stockport and Rochdale (90), Oldham (91), Bolton and Preston (92), Bury (93), Burnley (94), and Blackburn (95). It should be

noted that the towns which show these very high per-centages of girls employed are also the towns employing the largest numbers of married women and of half-timers in factories. With so large a proportion of the able-bodied female population in the factory, it can easily be seen that it is only the elderly and aged who keep together any semblance of a home.

In the Northern counties the per-centage sinks, the returns showing the following order:—Middlesborough (49), Sunderland (50), South Shields (52), Gateshead (54), York (60), Newcastle and Hull (62), Sheffield (66); and then with a much higher per-centage:—Leeds (82), Huddersfield (85), Bradford (88), and Halifax (89).

The Welsh towns give no wide range with Ystradyfodwg (55), Cardiff (59), Newport (61), Merthyr Tydvil (63), and Swansea (64).

Obviously the possibility of establishing classes in the daytime is considerably greater where the per-centage of girls occupied away from home is low. My own experience, however, has been entirely confined to large towns, where the per-centage of girls occupied is high.

Technical training.

§5. The statement that, except in domestic service or dress making, no large industry demands technical training for working girls needs examination.

In 1891, in every 1,000 females above 10 years of age, 344 were returned as occupied, and of these 121 were domestic indoor servants. Next in magnitude came the millinery, dressmaking, and staymaking industry, employing 36 per 1,000.

The other industries employing upwards of 5 per 1,000 females over 10 years of age were three textile industries (cotton 29, worsted 6, woollen 5) employing 40, washing and bathing service 16, teaching 13, charing 9, tailoring 8.

In the textile trades there is no special gain to an operative industrially, in having an acquaintance with all the processes of manufacture. To persons aiming at obtaining posts as superintendents, such a training is absolutely neceesary. If educated girls were trained for such posts, the advantage to girls under their supervision would, I consider, be very great. The charges of immorality rightly or wrongly brought against the "tuners" or foremen in such factories would end. It would be possible for women superintendents to enforce the observance of sanitary rules; and the field for moral influence is great. But, so far as I have been able to gather, the appointment of *uneducated* women over girls amongst whom they have worked is not only unpopular with them, but is more often than not deservedly so. Certainly the chances of women weavers rising to such positions are extremely small.

Under the head of washing and bathing service are included ironers; here special training is of advantage, but such training would be included in any thorough course of domestic economy,

and the more elaborate kind of work is better acquired in the laundry itself.

In tailoring, women have obtained their footing through subdivision of labour and the use of machinery; the few operations they are required to perform are more quickly and more thoroughly acquired in the factory.

In certain districts and in certain small trades the position of a few women might be improved by training, *e.g.*, printing, flower-making, and china-painting.

If it be granted that the education of working girls should be such as to fit them for domestic life, and that such education is needed by the great mass, and not merely by a few, it follows that the scholarship system can be of little use in furthering such education. What is needed are classes in local centres with good lecturers and proper appliances. If only the working hours of young girls were shorter, they would be able to attend such classes and to pay a reasonable fee out of their own earnings. The less intelligent the girl the more desirable it is that she should be attracted to the classes.

If there were any well-established institutions for the training of young girls to become professional cooks, dressmakers, milliners, &c., necessitating a lengthened period of study without any opportunity of earning wages, scholarships from elementary schools would be of the greatest assistance.

Such training, however, is professional rather than educational.

Scholarships to higher grade schools.

§6. From seven years' experience as a teacher in the highest form of an endowed school in Leicester, which received exhibitioners from the elementary schools; from a similar acquaintance with exhibitioners in a London high school, and from inquiries made in London as to the history of exhibitioners after leaving school, I have come to the conclusion that the per-centage of girls in the elementary schools whose intellectual capacity is above the average found in a high school is very small indeed. Unless her mental capacity is considerably higher than the high-school average, or unless she intends to become an elementary teacher, the training received in the high school seems to me to produce little result beyond reducing the chances of the exhibitioner's happiness in after life. In Leicester, with barely one exception, those of my pupils who came from the elementary schools returned to them afterwards as teachers. But in London in many cases the exhibitioners become post-office clerks or shop assistants; this seemed to me to be especially the case amongst the exhibitioners who stayed longest in the middle or high school. The girls themselves may, perhaps, obtain some industrial benefit by being removed from the class to which their families belong; that the class is benefited by their removal is more than doubtful.

If, however, the girl is really of exceptional ability, she is far more likely to lead a happy and useful life by being given full scope for her talent. But her ability should, I think, be tested by competition with the middle or high school girl, and not merely with the elementary scholar. Nor, on the other hand, does it seem to me just that parents with very small incomes should be compelled to send their children to elementary public schools in order to qualify them for obtaining scholarships to higher grade schools.

Scholarships to middle or high schools, on whatever principle they may be awarded, if given to the children of persons of very limited income, should be large enough to cover all expenditure on books and stationery, and, if possible, expenditure on dress. Otherwise there is a tendency for brothers and sisters at home to be unfairly treated; and the exhibitioner at school is inclined to impute any disapproval expressed by a teacher or unpopularity with his schoolfellows to her poverty, instead of to her own shortcomings. Under any circumstances the exhibitioner is very much handicapped by domestic conditions, by the lack of opportunity for physical exercise, games, and discussion of school work with educated persons, and if sent to school with girls having far greater advantages, should be freed from all avoidable worry and strain.

CLARA E. COLLET,
Labour Correspondent.

Labour Department,
Board of Trade,
12th September 1894.

B.—REPORT ON THE ACLAND SCHOOL CLUB, 1893–4.

In October 1893 the Acland School Club was opened at the Orange Street Board School, under the joint control of the London School Board and the Women's University Settlement in Southwark.

Its main object was to provide girls and boys with some form of continuation school, combined with a certain amount of ordered recreation. The idea has worked well enough to make a second year's trial advisable, and it is hoped, during the forthcoming session, many improvements may grow and real progress follow.

The hours are from 8 to 9.30, 8 to 8.30 being taken up with games, conversation, musical practice, and from 8.30 to 9.30 the classes are held.

Attendance.—One great difficulty in working these classes successfully is the uncertainty and irregularity of attendance. During a term a class may vary from 3 to 16 in attendance on a particular night, and these variations make special difficulties for the teachers in keeping their subjects intelligible to the regular and irregular attenders. Though six of our young

students, three girls and three boys, gained attendance prizes (over 90 per cent. of possible attendances), there are hardly any who have not some time in the year been detained at work, and have become unwilling absentees. Girls and boys are very easily discouraged, and if they miss two or three successive lessons, it takes a great deal of persuasion to induce them to make an effort to regain what they have lost, and follow their class through to the end of a term. In several cases they have left altogether after a long spell of overtime; they are curiously shy about rejoining the club when they have once lost touch with their companions and their teachers. Overtime for one often means absence for two, for they nearly all have their special "mate," and share the fortunes of circumstances together. A certain amount of illness, either of the members themselves or in the family circle, must always tell on attendance, but happily there is nothing abnormal to mention in this respect.

Choice of Subjects.—But a far greater difficulty consequent on the hours and class of work in which the daytime is spent presents itself when the girls and boys come to choose their subjects. As their attendance is entirely voluntary, the range of subjects must be popular and likely to engage their interest for a series of lessons. In this matter, the girls conspicuously avoid subjects involving mental exertion, whereas many of the boys complain if they have to *stand* at work, such as carpentering, or to *write* when they have had *manual* work during the day. Speaking generally, they choose subjects in greatest contrast to their work, the girls preferring such classes as gymnastics, musical drill, singing, cooking to history, arithmetic, drawing, and needlework. It is hardly to be wondered at that, after sitting all day, as cigar makers, dressmakers, machinists, &c. do, they want movement and relaxation in the evening, and cannot add the further strain of mental application to the long hours of steady routine work they have already had. In this respect the hours of girls' work compare unfavourably with boys', and account to a certain extent for their different mental fibre at the end of the day. There are two girls, one a machinist, the other a feather curler, who come regularly from their work (half an hour's walk from the City), and reach the club at 8.15. Most of those who work out have just time to go home and get their tea and be at the club by 8.30, while those who work at home, box-making, tie-making, mangling, &c., have been busy till the last minute, and are often out then for the first time in the day. Amongst the 60 girls who have been on the books during the year, I know of none who leave off work regularly before 7 o'clock.

This is not the case with the boys. Engineers' and printers' boys, boys in foundries, cycle works, and in the large factories can leave their work from 5 to 6.30 as a rule, and so they get breathing time between the necessary and the voluntary work. They are interested in history, and work thoughtfully; they are

painstaking in drawing, in arithmetic, &c., and care to use their minds and enjoy serious talk. Of course they like their gymnastics, too, but our experience goes to show they are less jaded and worn-out by their day's work than the girls. Office boys and messengers have longer hours as a rule, and are less regular, and shop boys who have been with us have been obliged to leave, not getting away in time to make it worth while taking any classes.

For both girls and boys in the busy seasons of their respective trades, working overtime is a serious drawback to steady and successful work, and for this reason it is difficult to gauge the progress of a class. The printing trade before Christmas, and the clothing trade before any of the Bank holidays, want extra time given, and those can be reckoned for, but where work is done from job to job, the uncertainty of overtime is a continual factor of difficulty in carrying on an evening school.

Ages.—The ages of the members of the club are from 13 to 17, and during the next session it is proposed only to admit those who have recently left school, and get them to really continue their school training and work upon it. Those who have left school a year or more have forgotten a good deal, and find themselves at a disadvantage compared with those whose memory is fresh and whose methods of learning, &c., have not passed into oblivion.

CLARA E. COLLET,
Labour Correspondent.

Labour Department.
Board of Trade,
12th September 1894.

Memorandum, furnished by the Local Government Board, on the Sanitary Inspection of Private Schools.

Section 92 of the Public Health Act, 1875, makes it the duty of the sanitary authority to cause their district to be inspected with a view to the discovery of nuisances.

By the orders of the Local Government Board of 23rd March 1891, the medical officer of health of a sanitary district is required "by inspection of the district, both systematically at "certain periods and at intervals as occasion may require, to "keep himself informed of the conditions injurious to health "existing therein." The inspector of nuisances is also required to inspect the district with reference to nuisances requiring abatement; and his work is to be superintended by the medical officer of health. If the medical officer of health receives information from the inspector of nuisances that his intervention is necessary in connexion with a nuisance, he is to take such steps as the circumstances justify and require.

Section 91 of the Public Health Act, 1875, defines what are nuisances liable to be dealt with summarily. The list given in that section includes "any premises in such a state as to be a "nuisance or injurious to health," and "any house or part of "a house so overcrowded as to be dangerous or injurious to "the health of the inmates."

Section 102 confers on a sanitary authority or their officers powers of entry upon premises for the purpose of examining as to the existence of any nuisance thereon. If admission is refused, a complaint may be made to any justice, who may make an order for admission. It would therefore be for the justice to determine whether there was *primâ facie* justification for granting the order. Disobedience to the order entails a penalty of 5*l*.

Sections 94, et seq., provide for the proceedings which may be taken with a view to the abatement of nuisances. The sanitary authority may serve a notice to abate, and if this is not complied with, may complain to a justice. The justice, after the hearing, may make an order of abatement, enforceable by penalty.

A private school would be in the same position as any other private premises in regard to these provisions.

A medical officer of health or inspector of nuisances could not therefore insist on admission to a private school for the purpose of examining as to the existence of a nuisance, if admission were refused, except on an order of a justice.

It may be assumed that the fact of the absence of arrangements with the view to the health and comfort of the children which the Education Department might require as a condition of the payment of the parliamentary grant would not necessarily involve a nuisance within the meaning of the Public Health Act which a magistrate would be likely to deal with by an order for abatement. As an instance may be mentioned the requirement of the Education Department as to the provision of accommodation for the hats and cloaks, &c. of the children elsewhere than in the schoolroom. The absence of such provision, except in the schoolroom, would not be likely to be regarded as a "nuisance" which could be dealt with by a magistrate under the Public Health Act. A magistrate would also probably hesitate to deal with an infringement of requirements of the Education Department as to superficial space, &c., as a case of overcrowding under the Act, unless it was of a very serious character, especially having regard to the fact that the premises would only be occupied by the children for a comparatively few hours in the day, and the schoolroom would be provided with means of ventilation.

Local Government Board,
8th June 1894.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

	Page
Letter from the Commissioners	389
Copy of General Circular	390
John Bidgood, Esq., Higher Grade School, Gateshead	393
Miss Broad, Bournemouth	398
Miss Buss, North London Collegiate School for Girls	398
The Reverend Canon Daniel	402
The Reverend Canon Moore Ede	405
Professor S. S. Laurie	407
Miss Lawrence	412
James Scotson, Esq., Central Higher Grade Board School, Manchester	421
The Right Reverend The Lord Bishop of Durham	426
Mr. J. G. Fitch, LL.D.	427
Mr. John Stewart	433
Mrs. A. Beatrice Anderton, B.A.	435
Miss E. E. M. Creak	441
Mr. J. G. Kerr	447
Reverend M. G. Glazebrook	450
Mr. H. Courthope Bowen	459
Mr. E. Lloyd Jones	465
Professor James Sully	472
Mr. Michael T. Sadler, M.D.	476
Mr. Charles T. Dyke Acland	478

CIRCULAR LETTER.

6, Old Palace Yard, S.W.,
April 1894.

SIR,

I AM directed by Mr. Bryce to express the hope that this Commission may be favoured with an expression of your opinion upon some of the more important topics which come within the scope of their reference, a copy of which is sent herewith.

I have, accordingly, the honour to ask you to consider the enclosed paper of queries, which have been proposed in order to elicit the views of persons interested in, and specially qualified to express opinions upon, questions of Secondary Education as regarded from various points of view.

You will perceive from the note at the end of the paper that your opinion is requested not upon all the topics mentioned in the queries, but upon those only which you may be disposed to deal with; and I may add that it is requested primarily, for the information and guidance of the Commissioners, that anything you may say will be deemed confidential if you so wish, and that none of your answers will be published without your express permission.

I am, your obedient Servant,
WILLIAM N. BRUCE,
Secretary.

GENERAL CIRCULAR.

QUERIES. (*See note at the end.*)

I.—*Universities.*

1. What should be the age (*a*) of entrance, (*b*) of competition for college scholarships?
2. How has the examination of schools by the universities worked?
3. Could the universities attract a larger number of science and other students by a better provision of instruction, or by any other and what means?

II.—*Secondary Schools and their Arrangements.*

1. Is it desirable that public provision should be made for preparatory schools, either day or boarding?
2. Where an Upper (so-called "First Grade") Secondary School exists, is a separate Lower (so-called "Second Grade" or "Third Grade") Secondary School needed, and, if so, whether under the same management?
3. Is the system of competitive entrance scholarships satisfactory?
4. What measures, if any, are required to facilitate the passing of scholars from one class of school to another?
5. Should secondary schools include a distinctively technical department, or should distinctively technical instruction be given in separate schools?
6. When should technical instruction begin?
7. What is the best method of providing Secondary Education in rural districts?

III.—*Leaving (Abiturienten) Examination.*

1. Should it exist?
2. Who should conduct it?
3. What advantages should it carry?
4. How far ought it to be uniform?
5. What is your opinion of the working of present examinations conducted by the universities?

IV.—*Inspection and Examination.*

Are they, or is either of them, desirable? Who should conduct them? And should the same authority conduct both?

For (*a*) endowed or public; (*b*) proprietary and private schools?

V.—*Endowments;* whether or not now applied to education.

1. What additional power (if any) is desirable for changing (*a*) their application; (*b*) their situation?
2. What authority should exercise that power?
3. What should be done with endowments now applied to (*a*) elementary education; (*b*) apprenticing?

VI.—*Relation of Elementary and Secondary Schools.*

1. Should higher grade elementary schools (*a*) remain; (*b*) be established where now wanting?
2. Is the effect of them on Science and Art grants satisfactory? and if not, why not?
3. At what age should children leave elementary for secondary schools?

VII.—*Teachers.*

1. Training:
   (*a*) What do you consider the best system? (*b*) How far is the same system applicable for the teachers of secondary and for those of elementary schools? (*c*) Should the universities take any, and what, part in the work?
2. Registration:
   Under what conditions should it be allowed? What privileges should it carry? Who should direct it? Should it be compulsory? And, if so, whether for all teachers, and on the same lines for all teachers?

VIII.—*District Authorities for Secondary Education.*

1. What should be the area of a district authority (*e.g.*, a county or a group of counties)?
2. Should this authority be an existing one (*e.g.*, the the county council) or one created *ad hoc*, by legislation or otherwise? And if so, how chosen?
3. What should be the borough authority (*a*) in county borough, (*b*) in smaller boroughs? Should it be an existing one (*e.g.*, the town council or school board) or created *ad hoc*? And if so, how chosen?
4. How should the respective jurisdictions of the district and borough authorities be adjusted (*e.g.*, should the district authority have any and what powers over (*a*) county boroughs, (*b*) other boroughs)?
5. What elements ought to be represented on district or other authorities for Secondary Education (*e.g.*, universities, local university colleges, teachers)?

6. Should a district or borough authority have any and what powers in respect of—

Elementary education.
Control over governing bodies of secondary schools.
The creation of new secondary schools.
Rating.
The re-arrangement of endowments.
Examination or inspection?

IX.—*Central Educational Board.*

(*a.*) Is any, and what central board needed?
(*b.*) What should be its functions?
(*c.*) Should they be exercised alone or in conjunction with a minister?
(*d.*) How should such a board be composed?
(*e.*) What restriction should be imposed on its powers, so as to leave sufficient independence in the local authorities, and sufficient variety in the schools?

X.—*Miscellaneous.*

1. Should there be a registration of schools, as distinct from teachers? And if so, under what conditions and with what privileges?
2. University extension classes: what should be their relation to Secondary Education?
3. Continuation and evening schools: ought they to be deemed agencies for Secondary Education?
4. How far should regard be had to existing schools, proprietary or private, or higher grade elementary, in considering the question of founding new public schools?
5. What is your experience of the teaching of boys and girls in the same day schools, or the same day classes?

The Commissioners have prepared these questions with a view to obtain information from a great variety of persons, and request you to favour them with answers to those questions only with regard to which you have special knowledge or experience, or in which you are specially interested.

They will be obliged if you will give reasons or illustrations in support of your opinion on each point on which you give an answer, but as concisely as the subject may permit.

MR. BIDGOOD.

Secondary schools and their arrangements.

II.—5. If by technical instruction is meant instruction in the application of scientific facts and principles to manufacturing processes, then I am strongly of opinion that its proper place is in the technical school, pure and simple. But such a school must have an entrance examination in pure science, or must be in connexion with a school in which pure science is taught, or must be organised to teach pure science as preparatory to technical instruction.

Technical instruction of this character is not in place in a school organised for general education.

It is often forgotten how very small a provision of higher technical instruction is necessary in most counties to satisfy all reasonable requirements. In Northumberland and Durham, where the industries are engineering, shipbuilding, mining, and chemical manufactures, one well-equipped school is enough to supply all, and such a school exists in the Durham College of Science, Newcastle, where, however, the fees are too high and the number of open scholarships too limited.

An attempt to teach workshop practice to all comers in technical schools would in this district almost certainly end in failure, owing to the very powerful opposition of the trade unions. But if workshop practice is to be taught outside the factories, the technical school is the place to do it in.

I am not here referring to the elementary wood and metal-shaping and joining which is practised in many schools, and which is capable of being made an educative process.

6. Technical instruction should not begin until the foundation of a good general education has been laid, and a training in pure science given.

7. The district authority should establish or take over secondary schools at convenient railway centres. These schools should be of the character required in the district. If they are to be used, even to a moderate extent, by children whose education has begun in public elementary schools, they must of necessity be of a kind to continue such education, and they must therefore be somewhat similar to existing higher grade schools. In all, mathematics and pure science should be taught, but whilst some should lean slightly towards literary subjects others should incline towards those science subjects which bear upon agriculture or other local industries.

Leaving examination.

A technical school, in or near the administrative area of the district authority, and teaching rural technics where necessary, should form part of the scheme.

Existing schools, or schools hereafter established in urban districts might be used if they were up to modern requirements. But the authority using such a school ought to make a capitation payment if it is out of their administrative area.

III.—1. I take it that under almost any conditions schools will compete with each other in examinations and will advertise results. Under these circumstances a leaving examination to replace the many now taken would be advantageous, because it might be made uniform, and schools would compete on equal terms.

2. It should be conducted under the direction of the central board.

3. It might replace the entrance or preliminary examinations now held by many professional bodies, universities and university colleges.

4. It should consist for all alike of a preliminary testing in general education. This part might be taken some time—a year or more—before the other part. The second part should give a choice of subjects, not a choice of some out of a large number of subjects, but a choice of one whole group out of many groups. And each group should be so constructed that whilst some should serve as entrance examinations to the universities, colleges, &c., others should represent the necessary preliminary untechnical knowledge for entering the professions, trades, manufactures, &c.

Within these limits it should be uniform throughout the kingdom, should be simultaneously held at all centres, the fee, if any, should be small, and it should be open to, but not obligatory upon, any scholar of any—or no—school.

Inspection and examinations.

IV.—The two parts of the leaving examination should be the only ones held under the direction of the central board.

Inspection of buildings, apparatus, and teaching should be carried out by the district authority in its own schools, *i.e.*, in all endowed or public schools. Examination of the nature on that now carried out by the Joint Board is the only one that schools ought to be subjected to, and in all cases the principal teacher should be associated with the external examiners on equal terms.

I except here the greater public schools, which are national concerns. They obviously should not be subject to any local authority.

Proprietary schools of all kinds should be liable to be inspected in the same manner as public schools, as a test of efficiency.

Endowments.

V.—3. (*a.*) Endowments now applied to elementary education, or available for the education of poor children, would, now that most elementary schools are free, be most equitably applied to the continuation of the education of children from elementary schools. In my opinion the higher grade schools are, as a class, the only ones which form continuation schools for elementary school children. In them, therefore, with these endowments, scholarships should be instituted for children from public elementary schools.

(*b.*) Endowments for apprenticeship premiums would be well employed in founding scholarships at technical schools and colleges.

Relation of elementary and secondary schools.

VI.—1. (*a.*) Higher grade schools should remain, because—

i. They form the only class of schools which are continuation schools for elementary school children. Wherever continuation schools for such scholars are established they must in a great measure be moulded on the higher grade schools.

ii. The work the best of them are doing is most certainly Secondary Education.

iii. Their great success, wherever established, shows that their value is recognised by parents, who require a continuation of the elementary school course for their children.

iv. They are the only modern secondary schools in many districts, and the only secondary schools in some. In the counties of Northumberland and Durham the number of children in the higher grade schools is already greater than in all the other secondary schools in the counties.

v. They are the only secondary schools with staffs of trained teachers; and to this fact must be largely ascribed their success.

(*b.*) Schools of this type are the most economical continuation schools for elementary school children, and they should be established in all districts, urban and rural. In these schools the transferred scholar takes up his work just where he left it in the primary school.

Science and Art grants.

VI.—2. The method of assessing the Science and Art grants is thoroughly bad, because financial considerations influence governing bodies to cause an undue attention to be paid to the teaching of science to the exclusion of much literary work.

This bad effect is not confined to higher grade schools, but extends also to the many grammar and other endowed schools which are organised science schools, or, without being so, prepare students to earn the grants of the Science and Art Department.

3. If the secondary school is not a continuation school for the elementary school child, then, if he goes at all, he should go at an early age—say not more than 10—and as a competitive examination for such a young child would be very harmful, he should go on the recommendation of the head teacher of the primary school.

But either process is more likely to select the precocious than the able child.

The primary school may be modified to serve as a preparatory school for the prevailing type of secondary school. This, I take it, is out of the question, because the primary school must be a place in which the education of the majority of its scholars is begun and finished.

Or the secondary school, or some secondary schools, may be made continuation schools for elementary school children. In this case they would have to be remodelled after the improved type of the best higher grade schools.

In either case the age of transfer may be extended two or three years.

The second course is the better, but this does not obviate the necessity of secondary schools of all types having their own preparatory departments.

Training and registration of teachers.

VII.—1. The training of teachers should be in the hands of the universities and university colleges. Pedagogics should form a portion of the student's course for a degree, and practice in teaching should be obtained at the same time or immediately after.

I do not see what difference in principles and practice there can be between the teaching in primary and secondary schools. It is true that at present the want of culture in primary school teachers would make many of them of little use in secondary schools. That, however, is improving every year. But, on the other hand, the want of training in the present race of secondary school teachers, except those in higher grade schools, makes most of them useless in primary schools.

A teacher, trained and cultured, would be of service in any school, and there is no reason why all should not be trained and cultured together.

2. All persons who, at the time of the passing of the Registration Bill, can show that they have been teaching continuously for a period of, say, two years, should be placed on the register as an act of fairness and policy.

All who have been continuously engaged in teaching for a less period should be placed upon the register on their showing that they entered the profession of teaching to seek a career in it.

All future teachers should be required to show that they have studied the art and science of teaching in a public institution—a register of such being kept by the central board—and to give evidence, by examination or otherwise, that they possess the necessary knowledge and practical skill.

Teachers on the register should be the only teachers recognised as competent to serve in certified efficient schools, primary or secondary.

Provision might be made for placing on the register teachers holding the diplomas of certain licensing authorities in other countries.

Registration should be in the hands of the central board, and it should be on the same lines for all teachers.

VIII.—I have read Canon Moore Ede's draft answers to the questions of this section, and I think with him on this subject. His scheme appears to me to be reasonable and politic.

IX.—(*a.*), (*b.*), and (*c.*) A central board is needed— Central education board.

i. To take charge of the registers of teachers and of certified efficient schools and places of training.

ii. To act as a board of studies and an examining board for the leaving examination.

iii. To act in an advisory capacity to the Minister of Education.

(*d.*) The board should be composed of—

i. Representatives elected by grouped district authorities. To give such representation to the district authorities would be to place and keep them on a higher level. Better men would come forward for election.

ii. Representatives elected by the universities and the colleges of the university rank.

iii. Representatives elected by the whole body of teachers in certified efficient secondary schools.

iv. Representatives elected by the whole body of teachers in primary schools.

v. Nominees of the Crown.

(*e.*) As I have conceived and sketched out its functions, it would leave complete independence to the district authorities, and this, together with the grouping of subjects for the leaving examination, would ensure great variety in schools.

X.—1. A register of efficient schools should be kept by the central board. Schools should be placed on this register on the recommendation of the district authority; but an appeal should be possible from the decision of the district authority to the central board. A final assent or refusal should be, in all cases, in the power of the central board, who should send down inspectors if necessary. Miscellaneous.

Schools not so recognised as efficient could not live long.

2 and 3. Continuation and evening schools, in which advanced work is being done, should be regarded as agencies for Secondary Education. University extension classes should, if advanced work suited to the district is being done in them, also be recognised as agencies for Secondary Education on the same footing as continuation and evening schools.

X.—4. In founding new schools regard should be had to all existing efficient schools, whether public or private, if they supply a need of the district. If, however, a school draws pupils mainly from a distance, as many boarding schools do, it is obviously not available for the district. In that case the district authorities should supply the deficiency.

5. I have had three and a half years' experience in this school, which consists of about 360 boys and 350 girls in the senior department under my sole charge. The highest limit of age for each is about 16 years. Boys and girls are on different floors, but classes are mixed for some subjects, and certain

members of the staff pass from the boys' to the girls' classes for certain subjects. My experience has taught me that:—

(*a.*) In this district parents object to much mixing of the sexes in the same class.

(*b.*) An economy of staff, apparatus, and material can be brought about by even a limited amount of mixing.

(*c.*) The average man exercises greater teaching power on a class of girls than the average mistress.

(*d.*) There is a better tone, and more refinement in the school.

(*e.*) So that a limited amount of mixing is not at all harmful, but, on the contrary, beneficial.

(*f.*) But that constant association in the same class may bring about a familiarity between a few of the boys and girls which is not desirable.

Miss BROAD.

IV.—Inspection and Examination.

1.—*Inspection.*

I consider *inspection* of all schools, both public and private, is most desirable. There should be a sanitary inspection, as well as an inspection of the general organisation, school appliances, methods of teaching, and discipline. The sanitary inspection might be conducted by the local sanitary authorities, but the inspection of the school should be controlled by the universities, or a central educational council and *not any local board.* The inspectors appointed should be men and women, who, in addition to the necessary attainments, have had *practical experience* in school work. If such inspectors are recommended, I much hope stress will be laid upon the appointment of *women inspectors* for girls' schools.

2.—*Examination.*

In the case of schools that cannot show that they are being already efficiently examined; it is desirable.

Miss BUSS.

Universities.

I.—1. Entrance at 18 or 19 works well in the case of girls, as far as my experience goes. Fifty-six girls have left the North London Collegiate School at about that age to enter the Cambridge colleges only. A later age delays too much the girl's entry into public life. An earlier age plunges her into collegiate studies, with increased intellectual strain and freedom from restraints in taking care or not taking care of herself, before her physical and mental constitution is sufficiently mature.

2. The examination of schools by the universities has worked excellently. It has stimulated activity without obliterating initiative; and has suggested lines of educational work without compelling the schools to follow them blindly. The large degree of freedom which the present system of university examinations allows enables the teachers to a large extent to correct and nullify the inevitable mistakes of examiners and examination requirements. The examinations could be greatly improved in particular respects, for which purpose no doubt a greater freedom of communication between the schools and the examining bodies would be our chief means.

3. In the case of girls a better provision of scholarships is required for this purpose.

II.—2. Yes; this is our experience for girls in North London. We have the North London Collegiate School with fees of 17*l.* 11*s.* 0*d.*, and a number of pupils ranging from 450 to 490; and within half a mile of it is the Camden School for Girls with fees of from 5*l.* 2*s.* 0*d.* to 7*l.* 4*s.* 0*d.*, and a number of pupils from 400 to 450. Both schools are obviously in steady demand. They are under the same board of Governors; and this is a great advantage, as thus all danger that they should trespass on one another's spheres is entirely avoided. Girls who leave direct from the lower school either go home, or go out into the civil service, or similar employment. Girls who leave from the upper school for the most part either go home or proceed to places of higher education. The two schools are adapted respectively to these different ends. Secondary schools and their arrangements.

4. My experience is that there is very little difficulty in working into a first grade school the scholars who come to it from lower schools. Some come to us directly from the elementary schools; other scholars, originally elementary, make their way up through the various neighbouring second grade schools.

Such difficulty as there is with the board school scholars occurs with French, and this can easily be overcome by a little special pains and some individual attention for a short period. As our girls do not begin Latin as early as boys do, this subject presents no difficulty, and ignorance of mathematics at 12 years of age (when combined with good attainment in arithmetic) is counted a distinct advantage. The real difficulty in girls' schools is with the "young ladies" who come badly prepared, at all ages, from inferior schools or home. These make a constant difficulty in the adaptation of the curriculum. The remedy lies chiefly in the still wider extension of educational ideas or indeed in the enforcement of compulsory elementary education among the well-to-do classes.

5. I think both experiments ought to be tried as circumstances determine. My own experience is rather in favour of the separate technical school, or at least separate technical depart-

ment of a school. The demands of the ordinary literary and scientific education appear to be sufficient at one time in the case of the average girl. At the same time girls below the average intellectually often develop most satisfactorily on being put to manual work, and such work ought to enter into every school course up to a certain point.

7. Dual schools; but I think that there ought always to be, for many reasons, a responsible woman charged with the special care and interests of the girls.

Leaving examinations.

III.—1. Yes; because the leaving certificate is of great value to the individual, and also because the examination aids in giving more point and spirit to the last years of school life.

2. The universities. In England their imprimatur carries more weight to the public mind than any other, is more attractive and inspiring to the individual pupil, and carries the highest possible guarantee of contact with the highest knowledge on all subjects.

3. It should be accepted as a substitute for various entrance examinations into the universities, the professions, and other employments. Assuming that all the leaving certificates are not of the same value, they should carry advantages of this kind according to their degree. This is what happens virtually at present with regard to the various university certificates, but the mode of working might be greatly simplified and systematised.

4. Considerable variety both of kind and degree is, I think, desirable. We still require for the best results, and perhaps always will require, a good deal of liberty of educational experiment. At the same time uniformity in the scale of standard would be most useful, as, for example, if all the examinations were divided into three grades, Class I. including those recognised as leaving examinations from the highest form of a first grade school.

5. The present examinations do serve the purpose very fairly but with much room for improvement and systematisation. The Pass Senior Local certificates serve as lower fifth form leaving certificates, while the Honour Locals and London University Matriculation take the same place for the upper fifth. Sixth Form work is of an ex-standard character.

Inspection and examination.

IV.—Schools in receipt of aid from public funds should be open to the observation of some officer appointed by the authority which distributes the funds. Such a function is now exercised unobtrusively, but no doubt effectively, by the London Technical Education Board. In a somewhat more complete, but not too complete, manner it might be made the business of the future county authorities charged definitely with the administration of Secondary Education funds.

All public schools would probably come into this category sooner or later. The only possible exceptions would be first

grade schools of high repute, the authoritative inspection of which, except sanitarily, would probably serve no useful purpose.

Examinations should be conducted by university boards, on which it would be well to co-opt a certain number of practical teachers in schools. I would like to see continued the present liberty of choice under the Charity Commission, by which governing bodies select their own examiners and external examinations and report themselves to the Commissioners. If a single central authority were created that report would be made to them, and no doubt should also be made to the local authority. A financial report to both would complete this scheme of satisfying the authorities that all was well.

Proprietary schools, if in effect public, *i.e.*, not worked for profit, might be treated similarly ; and private schools should be allowed to invite inspection and examination as a condition of being placed on a public register of schools marked as satisfactory.

Relation of elementary and secondary schools.

VI.—1. Higher grade elementary schools should as far as possible be modified, so as to furnish a completion to elementary rather than a commencement of Secondary Education. Such schools for girls as the professional school in Paris are much wanted.

2. The present usual age of about 12 years does very well. An earlier age does not allow the choice of scholars to be properly made. Children trained in elementary schools can, when clever enough to be sent on as scholars, adapt themselves at 12 years old to the higher school, if a little pains is taken.

Training of teachers.

VII.—1. (*a.*) The best system seems to me that of spending a year in a training college, where the whole time is spent in the study of the theory and practice of education, including, of course, those subjects on which the practical science is based, *i.e.*, psychology, logic, ethics, and physiology.

(*c.*) Such training colleges should, as far as possible, be attached to universities and university colleges with a professor of the subject in every case. The universities should, moreover, be the bodies to grant certificates, diplomas, and degrees in education. Much would, I believe, be done to raise the whole tone of education and make it more scientific by the institution of high class university degrees in education, such as that lately proposed for the University of London.

2. The recommendations of the Select Committee of the House of Commons meet the requirements.

District authorities.

VIII.—5. Universities, university colleges and teachers, should certainly all be represented on these authorities. The London Technical Education Board is not strong enough in the representation of teachers. The representation should be large enough to secure balance and not throw too much work or responsibility on one or two. Women teachers should be represented as well as men.

Central education board.

IX.—(*a.*) Some central board would be necessary, and I should prefer one of the same general character and following the traditions of the Charity Commission. An enlargement of the Charity Commission into an Education Commission with several departments would probably be best.

(*b.*) and (*c.*) I will only refer to its functions in reference to schools already at work. (i.) It should control registration both of teachers and schools. (ii.) It should hold a check over all schools as the central authority to which have to be sent reports of the examinations held by the university boards, and other information such as is now required by the Charity Commission from the endowed schools. (iii.) In other respects, *i.e.*, as regards inspection, I should think it better that the central authority should influence the schools by some system of district commissioners (as recommended by the Schools Enquiry Commission), acting on the local authorities.

(*c.*) I should like the connexion with the minister to be as nearly as is politically possible what it is at present.

(*d.*) Educational experts' knowledge as well as educational statesmanship ought to be represented on it.

Registration of schools.

X.—1. Yes. All schools should be registered which are reported to the authorities as satisfying:—

(*a.*) The sanitary authorities.

(*b.*) The local inspector of schools.

(*c.*) The University Board of Examiners.

There should be a local and also a central register, but the actual grant of a place on the register ought to be by the central authority.

To be certified is a sufficient privilege.

Canon DANIEL.

St. John's College, Battersea,
May 17th, 1894.

The only questions that I propose to are those relating to training and registration (Group vii.).

1. *Training.*

(*a.*) I should consider no system of training adequate that did not provide for systematic practice under skilled direction as well as for instruction in the theory and history of education. Both these essentials are secured in our present secondary training colleges for *women*, but the more important, that relating to practice, is not attempted in the training of men for secondary schools. The lectures on education given under the auspices of the Cambridge syndicate on teaching are entirely divorced from practice; so are those given by the College of

Preceptors, though I ought not to omit to mention that the latter body propose to start a training college, in which it will be possible for students to have practice in school-work as well as instruction in pedagogics. These examinations in the science and art of education are of even less practical value than lectures. So far as my experience goes, the most helpful things to a young teacher are—

(1) Observation and work in a well-ordered school;
(2) Model lessons given by experts in subjects of which they have made a special study;
(3) Criticism lessons given by students before a competent critic or critics, capable of tracing success and failure to the observance or violation of the laws of body and mind;
(4) The criticism of the headmaster of the practising school on the student's daily work.

Lectures, unsupported by practical work, are largely thrown away, the students having no experience of the difficulties which the lecturer endeavours to diminish or remove.

(*b.*) In the theoretic parts of a professional training secondary and elementary teachers might to some extent be taught together, though the former would be reasonably expected to make a deeper study of such subjects as psychology, logic, and the history of education. As regards practice the elementary teachers would have an enormous advantage over secondary teachers in having been pupil teachers for four years before proceeding to a training college, and could scarcely, with advantage, be taught with mere beginners.

[It is possible that I have not rightly apprehended the intention of this question. If I am asked how far a system, *similar* to that followed in the training of elementary teachers, is applicable in the training of secondary teachers, I would reply that, having regard to the fact that, at present, we have no public guarantee that a secondary teacher possesses either knowledge or practical skill, it would be an enormous advantage to have separate secondary training colleges, where students could learn the subjects they proposed to teach as well as the best methods of teaching them. The two are closely connected. The student who has acquired his knowledge by sound methods at the feet of a skilled teacher is already half trained. Large numbers of assistant teachers in secondary schools have had to pick up their knowledge as they could, and no amount of practical training could, in their case, wholly compensate for the lack of sound knowledge acquired by sound methods.]

(*c.*) The universities could provide instruction in those sciences that underlie the practice of education, such as mental science, logic, and the history of education, but they could not, I think, provide for the practical training of teachers. That must be entrusted either to special training colleges or to large schools with a training department. Preparation for a degree and

attendance at a practising school could scarcely go on side by side. Apart from this I would point out that a very small proportion of the assistants in secondary schools receive their education at the universities.

I do not think that a teaching diploma should be granted to any young teacher who had not spent six months, at least, in the practical work of education in some school or college of certified efficieney, and then only after having given a satisfactory lesson before a competent judge. The practical tests of efficiency demanded by Cambridge University and London University, and now provided, but not made compulsory, by the College of Preceptors, are good as far as they go, but, so far as my observation extends (and I have examined for both universities), there is a wide gulf between the practical skill of those candidates who have had technical training, and other candidates who have had no such advantage. The women candidates, who have for the most part been to a training college, almost invariably do well; the men, however able naturally and however well-informed, show, in the majority of cases, little skill, either in teaching the subjects of their lesson or in training the mind. They have, as a rule, a low standard of excellence in their mind, and are utterly unfamiliar with the many artifices by which a skilful teacher overcomes difficulties and secures the co-operation of his pupils.

2. *Registration.*

A distinction should be drawn between the possibilities of the future and of the present. We must, I think, provide for a transitional period, during which regard must be had to two classes of teachers, (*a*) experienced teachers of, say, at least 10 years' standing, and (*b*) young teachers already at work who might be provisionally registered for a term of years, say five, in which they might qualify themselves for being placed on the permanent register. With these exceptions no teacher should have his name placed on the register who had not given proof of—

(*a*) Adequate knowledge of the subject or subjects he proposes to teach;

(*b*) Adequate practical skill.

The privileges attaching to registration, over and above the improved status they would confer, might be of two kinds. Unregistered teachers might, after a given period, lose the power of suing for pay in a law court, and assistantships in secondary schools, subsidised with public money, might be confined to registered teachers.

Having regard to the wide variety of ways in which teachers might be expected to qualify, the need of specific as well as of general registration, the complicated questions which would

arise in the case of foreign teachers, and the necessity for examinations providing tests not otherwise provided for, I would entrust the duties of registration to either a board of experts or to a Government department created for dealing with Secondary Education.

A registration scheme should, in the interests of the public, be made compulsory. This is already the case with elementary education, the list of certificated teachers kept by the Education Department being a register.

All teachers should be registered, and provision should be made for teachers of a lower grade rising to a higher on proof of adequate knowledge and skill.

APPENDIX to MEMORANDUM by Rev. CANON MOORE EDE.

In the replies to the queries of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education which I have previously sent, I confined my observations to the day schools, and pointed out the advantages which would result from a single educational authority in each district for day schools. I should like to supplement what I wrote by extending my observations so as to show the advantage which would result if the education board of each district were the sole authority for the education of those who have left school, and yet desire to continue their education.

First, let me draw attention to the anomalous conditions which arise from the present divided authority.

Taking the Parliamentary division as the area, as suggested in my previous replies to queries, the following educational agencies are to be found in more or less vigorous existence in most such areas :—

1. Technical classes controlled by the county or borough councils, and maintained by money received under the Customs and Excise Act. These classes are restricted to technical subjects, which in practice means for the most part classes in elementary science.
2. Science classes maintained by grants from the Science and Art Department. These classes are frequently under the control of the school board, are conducted in their buildings, but are not maintained out of the school board funds.
3. Evening continuation classes, these are mainly under the control of the school board, and supported by grants earned and rates in aid. These classes are of an elementary character.
4. Pupil-teachers central classes maintained and controlled by the school board.
5. Art schools; usually under the control of a separate committee, and maintained by grants from South

Kensington, and such grant as the county council may be willing to make.

6. University extension lectures—conducted by a separate committee. Not receiving any grant from county council or South Kensington, and being charged by school board or other local authority for use of rooms, great difficulty is experienced in meeting the expense connected with this important part of education for those who have left school.

It is manifest that owing to restrictions on county council and South Kensington grants, mathematics and science preponderate, and that languages, literature, and history are practically crushed out, except in so far as they may be taken in the elementary continuation classes, or by the university extension lectures.

The diversity of authorities prevents any adequate co-ordination or system in the instruction given—there is overlapping, waste, and no real method. Whereas if there were one educational authority and that authority were entrusted with the whole of education of those who had left the day schools, and had control over the Customs and Excise money, a fairly satisfactory system of higher education could be established in every parliamentary division.

Given the education board as the sole authority and controlling all moneys to be expended on the education of those who have left school, and having at their disposal all existing board schools and educational apparatus, their first step should be to appoint a capable man to organise the education other than ordinary school work throughout the district. Such appointment might be permanent, or arrangement might be made with the Oxford or Cambridge University Extension Syndicate for some one of their staff of lecturers to undertake the work for three or five years. In some places it would be desirable to have a change of man and a change in the subjects of lectures given by the principal every few years.

Whether the organising principal were permanent or not, it would be desirable that the education board should be in close touch with the universities, so as to avail themselves of the opportunity of obtaining the services of a number of lecturers on various subjects for lectures for adults and for pupil-teachers on history and literature, and for special lectures from time to time for those attending the evening continuation classes.

As class rooms, laboratories, &c. already exist, there would be no need for any expenditure on costly buildings. What is needed is a *man* responsible for the organisation and supervision of the whole. At present neither the school board nor the county council can appoint a man to organise the whole education; for each authority only controls a part.

I believe if one educational authority is established in each parliamentary division, and the expenditure of the Customs and

Excise money entrusted to it for the education of those who have left school, and without the narrowing restriction of the word technical, then in every parliamentary division there can be a system of organised instruction for those who have left school, similar to that which Mr. McKinder has organised in Reading and Mr. Clayton in Exeter.

June 29th, 1894.

Prof. S. S. LAURIE.

Note.—I have answered only such questions as my experience enabled me to answer with some confidence. I have taken them in the order which suited the answers I had to give.

Queries and Answers.

IX.—It is impossible, in my opinion, that the Secondary Education of England can be in any sense organised without a permanent board of Education Commissioners with a chairman, under a Minister of Public Instruction. Personally, I dislike centralised administration, but the necessities of the case demand it, and the problem is to reconcile a central authority with local autonomy. Central education.

The question of Secondary Education is no longer now a question of "grammar" schools, that is to say, institutions whose main purpose is to prepare boys for the universities or professions. It is a much larger question. A considerable proportion of the children of the artizan and lower middle class are being gradually brought within sight of advanced "elementary" instruction, by which I mean instruction carried on to the age of 15 or 16. This is "secondary" instruction quite as much as the instruction given up to the age of 15 or 16 in Eton or Winchester. But it is on different lines, and does not keep in view as its goal university matriculation, but rather industrial pursuits generally and technical colleges. This kind of secondary instruction is a continuation of the elementary instruction given in elementary schools under the Code, and must be a natural development of that instruction.

Consequently, the central authority for Elementary and Secondary Education must, it seems to me, be one and the same if there is not to be overlapping and unnecessary (often duplicated) expenditure and conflict of administration, both at head-quarters and locally.

The central authority would be consultative, the Minister being responsible, and would have to consist, to a considerable extent at least, of paid members.

The consultative central authority should be composed chiefly, but not solely, of educational experts. Unless it be so composed, it will be the slave of those who think they are better informed and be compelled to yield to political and ecclesiastical and

factious pressure. It would thus have no continuous policy resting on recognised principles.

[It would supersede the present "Education Department," and a similar Board of commissioners should be instituted in Scotland and Ireland—all subject to the Minister.]

The great difficulty which presents itself is the limitation of the powers of a central authority. It is vital to a sound national system that boroughs and counties should be engaged in the institution and administration of their own education. A nation is educated by adults taking part in the education of its children as much as by the education of the children themselves.

VIII.—*District Authorities.*

I am of opinion that there should be a local educational authority in boroughs having more than 10,000 of a population, and that, outside boroughs, the educational authority should be co-extensive with the county; except perhaps in very large counties.

These authorities should be created *ad hoc*, experience having shown that where education is only one of many subjects managed by a municipality it is treated as of subordinate importance.

These authorities might be appointed by the town councils and county councils to the extent of one half, and Her Majesty's Inspector should have a seat without a vote. Wherever there is a university or a university college they should appoint two or three members. The secondary schoolmasters of the county, or failing a Registration Act which would define these, the secondary schools recognised as such by the central authority in London, should elect at least two members, and the elementary certificated teachers one member. I think there could be no objection to one or two nominees of the Crown.

[If England had a Board school system as Scotland has, I think the county educational authority might have control over the primary as well as secondary schools, appointing local managers in the case of each parish or district.]

The powers and duties of the County authority would be to see (1) that Secondary Education both of the professional and the industrial type was adequately provided according to the wants of each locality. In boroughs central secondary schools, and in rural districts also central secondary schools would have to be instituted, or recognised where they already existed.

In the present educational state of England, I think that to withdraw elementary schools from the central authority and place them under the county authority would for obvious reasons give rise to an amount of friction which would lead to the pre-occupation of the county authorities with questions of policy (ecclesiastical and civil), and so direct their attention from education proper.

The County authority would of course require to have rating powers, but these restricted. They should have also paid over to them the sums now in the hands of county councils for technical instruction, and have power to re-arrange local endowments *with the consent* of existing trustees or governors.

The science and art grants should be paid to the council *on account of the science and art instruction* given in the schools of the county. The present system of individual payments for passes is universally condemned.

As to inspection: the word "inspect" does not express the work to be done by an expert when he goes to see a school. In the case of a secondary school inspection implies a code for the school and rules for the inspector. The result would be a uniformity which might amount to oppression, and certainly would repress the vitality of schools and teachers. The secondary schools, however, would have to be reported on; but not necessarily every year. What approves itself to me in the secondary schools is a triennal visitation. The visitor would report on the buildings, sanitation, and apparatus; on the curriculum, the staff, the resources of the school, the payment of the masters, the general character, organisation, and aims of the school, and the success with which these were carried out.

All other examination of the school should be in the form of leaving certificates.

Private schools, *i.e.*, schools conducted as a business, and proprietary schools, should be recognised by the county authority as county secondary schools, if they complied with certain conditions and were favourably reported on generally. It seems to me to be important to encourage various types of schools, and above all to avoid all action which would result in uniformity of system.

Under endowed schools I, of course, include the great Public Schools. These should not be *under* the County authority, but they should be subject to visitation and report just like other recognised secondary schools. (Schools of this class do not exist for the county alone.)

The proceeds of the rate imposed by the county council and South Kensington grants, and Residue grant, would go to those schools only which were governed by the county authority. These would be instituted, not to supersede, but only to supplement existing institutions.

Inspection and Examination.

I have said that the inspection should take the form of visitation, and a report on the sanitation, curriculum, organisation, and aims of the school, and that, to secure local freedom it should take place only triennially. The visitor should be appointed by central authority and for all secondary schools alike.

Leaving Examinations.

Leaving examinations should be instituted but not enforced.

Leaving certificates should be of two classes—viz., certificates testifying that the boy or girl is fit to meet the matriculation requirements of universities. There should be no Honours certificate granted. No certificates should be granted unless a boy has passed in a group of at least five subjects, one of which should be English. But the standard ought not to be so high as to in any way strain the boys. It is the curriculum organisation and methods of teaching that educate boys, and where these are good, a certain attainment may reasonably be demanded of the great majority of them; but this is all. Where the curriculum has been a broad one, which it ought always to be, the amount of knowledge in specific subjects cannot be very high, nor can it be said that it is desirable that it should be. Schools may be (so to speak) "intellectualised" too much at the expense of ethical and gymnastic training and the evoking of intellectual interests.

Relation of Elementary and Secondary Schools.

1. In towns there should be central secondary schools; and teaching above the standards of the code prohibited in all other schools.

2. In rural districts there should also be a few central secondary schools. But in addition to this, advanced instruction should be encouraged in all schools. This can be done by special grants to teachers, made either by the county authority or by the central authority under the education code. (*See* Scheme of the Dick Bequest in Scotland, which I have worked for 38 years.)

There is a *primâ facie* objection to the designation of schools as first grade, second grade, and so on. All schools are either primary, carrying on boys till their fourteenth year, or secondary; but the latter might be distinguished by calling those which have the universities for their goal "secondary" or "high" schools, and those which have the business of life or a technical college for their goal "intermediate" schools.

Endowments should be, as far as as possible, used to carry clever boys from the primary to the intermediate or high school

Miscellaneous.

Continuation evening schools, to which only those boys and girls are admitted who have passed the code standards, are certainly agencies for Secondary Education of a very important kind. They constitute the only means of providing advanced instruction for the great mass of artizans and clerks. They demand special attention from the county and borough educational authorities. As they form an integral part of an organised

system of Secondary Education they should be under the regulation of the local Secondary Education authorities, but from time to time inspected by the central authority.

Extension lectures are the evening continuation schools of the middle classes, and, in my opinion, should be self-supporting and left outside the operations of either the central or local educational authorities.

Teachers.

This is the most important of all the questions which can engage the attention of the Commission. If all secondary teachers are registered, the essential condition of registration being professional training in the theory, history, and art of education (including, of course, school practice), it is clear that more than half of the objects of the Commission would be at once attained. (*See* my evidence before the Parliamentary Committee on the Registration of Teachers.)

I cannot discuss so large a question here, but I simply state my conviction on the subject. I have long supervised training colleges; I have given, for 18 years, university courses of instruction with a view to a schoolmaster's diploma, and written largely on the subject, and I may, therefore, without undue assumption of authority, confine myself to stating dogmatically my opinion without entering into the discussion of the question.

Most unquestionably the universities and university colleges should undertake the work of professional training. I beg leave to submit as an appendix the scheme for the training of teachers which I have organised in the University of Edinburgh.

(Signed) S. S. LAURIE.

University of Edinburgh,
2nd July 1894.

REGULATIONS FOR SCHOOLMASTERS' DIPLOMA.

1. Candidates for the schoolmasters' diploma must be graduates in Arts of a Scottish, English, or Irish University, or of some other university approved of by the Senatus and the University Court.

2. Each candidate must have matriculated in the University for the year in which he presents himself for the diploma.

3. Each candidate must have attended the Class of the Theory, Art, and History of Education in the University.

4. Each candidate must pass an examination in the Theory, Art, and History of Education, to be conducted by the Professor of that subject, and an Examiner appointed by the University Court.

5. The subjects of examination are announced annually in the *University Calendar.*

6. Each candidate must give evidence either:—

(*a.*) That he has attended a course of practical instruction in a training college for teachers; or

(*b.*) That he has gone through a complete course of practical training in a training college or normal school for teachers, the course to extend over not less than five months, and to include demonstration and criticism lessons.

7. Each candidate must further satisfy the University of his practical aptitude as a teacher by teaching a class in some special subject or subjects in which he has received instruction in the University, or in any institution recognised by the University as qualifying for degrees.

8. Each successful candidate will receive a diploma signed by the Vice-Chancellor of the University, or, in his absence, by the Principal or the Senior Professor. The diploma will be delivered at a public meeting for conferring degrees.

9. This diploma is of two grades: (*a*) for Masters of Arts with Honours in any Department, testifying to their fitness for secondary schoolmasterships, and will state the special subjects in which the holder of the diploma is qualified; (*b*) for those who have taken the ordinary degree of M.A.

10. The fee for the diploma is 2*l.* 2*s.*

The next examination will begin on Friday, 29th March 1895, at 9 o'clock, and candidates are required to enter their names and pay the fee at the *Matriculation Office* on or before 15th March.

The subjects are: Lectures by the Professor; Lanuguage and Linguistic Method in the School; Locke's "Thoughts." Locke on the "Conduct of the Understanding"; Comerius' "Great Didactic;" Milton's "Tractate"; Quintilian's "Institutions," Books I. and II.; and "The History of Education, Hellenic and Roman," as in the Class Lectures, and the General Outlines of History, as in Quick's "Biographies," down to 1700.

A short Thesis will be prescribed to be written in the examination room on an educational subject.

Miss LAWRENCE.

1. *Universities.*

1.—(*a.*) It seems to me that 18 is the best age for entrance, as far as girls are concerned; few would be able to profit by university teaching before that age.

2. I have had my own school examined by the University of Cambridge for the last two years and have found the examination a great help.

Its advantages would seem to be as follows :—

1. It leaves the school free to choose its own curriculum and employ its own methods and text-books, while setting a standard of excellence in the work on the lines chosen by the school.
2. It has all the advantages of a public examination in giving definiteness to the work of the year, and in helping the school authorities to realise the weak points of the school and to gauge the efficiency of the teaching.
3. It reaches every child in the school instead of only the more gifted or specially prepared.

III.—*Leaving (Abiturienten) Examination.*

1. It would be a great gain if it should be found possible to arrange for it.

2. It should be conducted by examiners appointed by the central board for regulating Secondary Education, in conjunction with the authorities of the school.

3. The advantages should be the following :—

1. It should carry with it admission to any university in the United Kingdom, and exemption from such preliminary tests as the London Matriculation Examination and the Cambridge Previous Examination, and their equivalents in other universities ; if passed with sufficient credit, this would save students at the university much time which might profitable be spent on their special studies.
2. It should exempt from the various preliminary examinations for the learned professions, *e.g.*, the preliminary examinations for solicitors, &c. ; the various local examinations held by the universities are in many cases already accepted as substitutes.

4. Uniformity of *standard* for such an examination would be an absolute essential ; but it would seem possible to work it in such a manner as still to leave a good deal of freedom to individual schools, and not to hamper their development, *i.e.*, there might be a limited number of compulsory subjects for all schools, and a fairly wide range of optional subjects from amongst which each school should be asked to choose a given number.

Secondly.—The *standard* might be kept uniform whilst allowing each school, or groups of schools, to settle matters of detail with the sanction of the examining body, *e.g.*, each school might be allowed to select its own Latin authors or history period, provided that authors of a certain difficulty and periods of equivalent difficulty and length were chosen by the respective schools.

Note.—This would, if adopted, only set up the same kind of difference in different centres that already exists in even the most rigorously uniform examinations in different years. The expense might in each case be borne by the school, or by a group of schools who might decide to choose the same subjects.

University examining agencies.

5. From personal experience I can only speak of the Cambridge examinations.

I understand that it is the various local examinations that are intended by this question.

5.—(*a.*) The Cambridge higher local examination has an excellent effect on the work of those who prepare for it.

Its peculiarity is that it is possible to take a few subjects at a time, while a sufficiently high standard is maintained in each subject to make it a decided stimulus. It forms a very suitable examination for girls to take in their last year of school life. Most clever girls can do good work at one "group" and yet have time for music or drawing or general reading. It forms on the whole a useful preparation for study at the university.

(*b.*) The Cambridge senior and junior local examinations are arranged on a somewhat different plan, and seem to me less beneficial in their effects. No doubt the general standard of teaching all over the country has been raised very largely by their aid, but it seems to me they suffer from several defects which impair their usefulness.

Firstly.—To obtain a high place in either of these examinations it is necessary to take up a large number of subjects.

My experience is that not more than five or six subjects can profitably be kept up to the state of readiness for a public examination constantly revised with the knowledge in the compact form in which it is most useful for examination purposes, without the sacrifice of something more important, either exercise or general culture. It is important that not the whole of a child's time should be given up to lessons.

Secondly.—The examinations are inelastic. The subjects set cannot in the nature of things be chosen with regard to the needs of any individual school, and therefore the school adapts itself to the examination, which is hardly the right state of things.

Thirdly.—The books set are often unsuitable in themselves. The examiners are often men who have little practical experience in school teaching, and set books, particularly in French and German, which it is hardly possible to work through with the children.

Fourthly.—The minute verbal study of one of Shakespear's plays which these examinations encourage does not exhaust the subject of English literature, nor even in all cases form the most suitable introduction to its study; but the questions set are of such a nature as to necessitate candidates in "Shakespear" spending the whole of their time available for English literature during the year on the one play; and the tendency is no doubt

to induce schools to confine their teaching of English literature to one play a year.

Perhaps the chief defect of these examinations is that it is impossible on the present system for examiners and teachers to be in touch. If they are to be in the future of the benefit to the children that they might be, some method must be found whereby teachers and examiners could be put *en rapport*.

IV.—*Inspection and Examination.*

Inspection.

1. (*a.*)—It seems to me that inspection would be very desirable.

Inspectors should ascertain—

1. The efficiency and proper sanitation of the school buildings.
2. The efficiency of the diet in boarding schools.
3. The efficiency of the school staff as to number and qualification.
4. The character of the teaching (by listening to lessons given in the school).

(*b.*) Inspectors should be appointed by the central board and should be persons of high standing, who had themselves had practical experience of school teaching. The post of inspector should be one of honour and dignity and of considerable emolument, so as to attract a class of persons who would command the confidence and respect of the teaching profession, and who would be competent to make really useful suggestions. Former headmasters of public schools are the type of men I mean.

There should be properly qualified women inspectors for girls' schools.

Inspection should be so conducted as to ascertain the efficiency of the school, to be a check on gross abuses, and the inspectors should be capable of giving really valuable advice in a friendly spirit. They should be recognised as friends and helpers. They should listen to lessons given rather than examine themselves, and criticise time-tables, text-books, teaching, &c. Their visits should be frequent enough for them really to gain an insight into the working of the school.

They should, however, avoid anything that would hamper the free development of the school, *e.g.*, they should not ask for the time-tables or text-books to be submitted to them for approval *before* their adoption. This regulation is in force in Germany, and I believe in our elementary schools it must entail a good deal of unnecessary routine work, hinder rapid adaptation to circumstances, and be, in general, rather vexatious than beneficial. I hope it will be found possible for inspectors to judge of the efficiency of a school whilst allowing the utmost freedom to schools whose work is satisfactory.

I believe both public and endowed as well as private and proprietary schools should be inspected by the same authority. If public schools are placed under their jurisdiction it will enhance the prestige of inspectors and make it more likely to get a body of men of liberal minds whom schools generally can trust.

Abuses in public schools are not absolutely unknown, and the abuses which exist in many private schools and the smaller grammar schools make inspection of these an absolute necessity.

Examination.

Examinations are also very desirable, though a less sure guide to the efficiency of a school than competent inspection.

They should, however, in all cases, be conducted with the co-operation of the teachers, and should be on the work the school has actually done, and not according to a hard-and-fast scheme laid down by an outside authority, however competent. It is not essential that examinations should be conducted by the same authority which inspects. It seems to me some scheme like that at present worked by the universities is very satisfactory.

The objections to a hard-and-fast outside scheme are as follows:—

a. The standard is apt to be placed too high for average children to reach without over-pressure. If the reputation of the school depended on the examination results there would be a tendency to overwork the children. The chief complaint against our high schools is that there is apt to be too little time for exercise or for cultivating pursuits which are not lessons.

b. An outside standard fixed for every class would necessarily control the order in which the subject was presented to the children and therefore the methods of teaching to be adopted. It would leave too little room for originality and progress.

I have by me the Code of 1883, and in it the requirements in arithmetic for each standard are so arranged that it is hardly possible to teach the subject otherwise than mechanically. Better divisions of the subject were known long before that date, and many teachers must have chafed under these regulations. I should very strongly deprecate any such minute classification by an outside authority of any subject taught in secondary schools. I think it would be a hindrance and not a help.

It would, however, be of great use to have each school (or a group of schools combined for the purpose) *examined on its own syllabus* by duly-appointed experienced examiners. If such syllabus appeared too slight it might be made the subject of criticism or inquiry.

c. It is not possible, at any rate at present and in private schools, to draw any fair conclusions as to the efficiency of the school from the age at which children have reached a certain standard.

No means exist at present, nor do I know if they could ever be tolerated in England, of compelling the parents of the well-to-do classes to send their children to school at a given age or to control the teaching they give them in their homes. The consequence is very great divergence in the efficiency of preparation children receive; many girls come to school at sixteen knowing less than average children of twelve. No school, however excellent, can make up for years of neglect.

Public schools can guard themselves by not admitting pupils above a certain age or below a certain standard; but private schools cannot do this, and are all the more likely to be asked to take backward children because of the attitude of the public schools.

These remarks apply to examinations considered as a means of education and as a test of the manner in which a school realizes the aims it has set itself.

Examinations which are meant to be tests of the fitness of an individual to perform certain duties must be conducted on different principles. In their case the examining body must fix the requirements without reference to the means by which they are to be complied with.

VII. 1.—*Training.*

(*a.*) I believe the best system to be on the lines given by the Maria Grey Training College, Brondesbury. Theory and history of education, psychology, and hygiene are taught in the lecture rooms, and the students teach under supervision and criticism in the Maria Grey School, and have the opportunity of listening to lessons given there. This is also the method adopted in Germany.

The time devoted to such training should be, as a rule, a year; but I believe a shorter course would suffice for persons of exceptional ability, *e.g.*, for such as had taken high honours at any university. This method is preferable to apprenticeship for the following reasons:—

a. It is more efficient, because headmasters and headmistresses have not time to give to systematic training of young teachers, and the training of apprenticeship is really only the training of experience. This may produce excellent results in the end, but always at the expense of the children.

b. It starts the young teacher on his or her career with a proper appreciation of the difficulty of the work which he or she undertakes, and puts him or her into a frame of mind to profit by the suggestions of the headmaster

or mistress, and prevents many elementary avoidable mistakes.

c. I think the universities are the bodies that could best help to get the necessity for the training of teachers recognised. I am not prepared to say what part exactly they should take, but perhaps a post-graduate course for intending teachers might be arranged, and bursaries offered to distinguished students of limited means.

Note.—The most difficult part of a teacher's work is teaching the junior classes and the elements of knowledge. Most people who know a subject themselves can teach grown-up, or nearly grown-up, people without special training. It is only the well-trained teacher or the teacher of long experience who can teach young and backward children well, and in such a way as to develop their intelligence.

(Dr. Michael Foster for years kept the elementary courses in his own hands, leaving the advanced course chiefly to his assistants.)

VII. 2.—*Registration.*

It should be allowed under the following conditions:—

(*a.*) To all teachers who have been engaged in teaching for two years at the date of passing of any Act of Parliament making provision for registration.

(*b.*) To all teachers after that date who can show certain minimum qualifications to be fixed by the central authority for regulating Secondary Education. These qualifications, however, to include a knowledge of the theory and practice of education.

It should carry the same privileges that registration carries with it in other learned professions.

It should be directed by the central educational board.

It should certainly be compulsory. If the heads of the profession were not registered, registration would lose its value for the rank and file.

It should be for all teachers and on the same lines for all teachers.

VIII.—*District Authorities for Secondary Schools.*

Queries 2, 3, 6.—I have too little knowledge of the local machinery that may be necessary to offer any suggestions; I also do not know what may be the practical difficulties in the way of creating new local authorities, but one or two considerations occur to me in connexion with this subject from the school's point of view, which I should like to offer for what they are worth.

Firstly. It should be the object of the organisers of Secondary Education to subject the schools to as little external control as possible, *i.e.*, as little as may be consistent with securing the efficiency of the schools.

Secondly. The authority which exercises control over schools by means of inspection or examination should be such as the schools themselves can respect.

It seems to me that neither of these objects would be attained by subjecting secondary schools to the control of any existing local authority.

Firstly. Local authorities would be more tempted to over-interfere and over-govern than a central authority.

Secondly. Local authorities, such as the present town councils and school boards of the smaller and middle-sized towns of England, are not always composed in such a manner as to command the confidence of teachers in their powers to deal with Secondary Education. The number of persons able and willing to serve on the town councils and school boards of small towns and districts is limited, and it is, therefore, not always possible to ensure that these bodies shall be composed of persons who have themselves received a liberal education, and are prepared to take wide-minded views with regard to educational matters. I am afraid the same difficulty will be felt with a new special local authority, at all events to some extent.

I hope, therefore, some scheme may be arrived at which will very considerably limit the powers of control over Secondary Education of the local authorities, and that inspection and examination of schools will not be left in their hands.

IX.—*Central Educational Board.*

(*a.*) A central board is certainly necessary.

(*b.*) To control all matters relating to Secondary Education, including the registration of teachers and the inspection and perhaps examination of schools.

(*c.*) The central board should have, at least, half of its members persons actually engaged in teaching, or who had been teachers for a certain number of years. The universities and the organisations representing the teaching profession should have representatives, and a certain number, both of lay and professional members, should be appointed by Government.

X.—*Miscellaneous.*

4. Where private and proprietary schools are doing good work and satisfying the requirements of the neighbourhood, I think no new public school should be established.

Where a new public school seems desirable, the owners and managers of private and proprietary schools might be approached with a view to taking over their school or schools and converting it into a public school.

I believe that many private schools might fall in with some such scheme for the sake of acquiring model premises and of founding work which would be permanent.

In many cases as much good might be done by developing existing schools as by crushing them out by means of a wholly new one.

I am told that in Germany the private schools can only stand the strain of competition with the State schools by under-paying their teachers. Salaries of 30*l.* a year non-resident are said to be not uncommon. It would be a great pity if this new movement were to bring about similar results in England.

5. I had three classes, once a week for three months, at Mrs. Case's school, Heath Brow, Hampstead (now given up), for boys and girls, to whom I taught natural science.

The classes were most interesting. I found the children worked well together and could be interested by the same means. The written work of the boys was as a rule untidy and original, they only reproduced the portions of the lesson which interested them, and always in words of their own. The girls sent up very neat work, reproduced the entire lesson and very often quoted my exact words. The discipline and attention were most satisfactory. None of the children were over fourteen.

The after career of some of these children is known to me, and is most satisfactory. Two of the boys have since done good work at Oxford, and one of the girls has just taken second-class honours in the History Tripos at Girton, so their early education was, at all events, no drawback.

I hope, however, that Miss Herford, Lady Barn House, Fallowfield, Manchester, will be given an opportunity of expressing herself on this subject. She has for years been at the head of a successful day school for boys and girls under twelve. I once spent a week at her school, and was much impressed by the satisfactory manner in which the plan worked.

Note.—There is one point which occurs to me and which I cannot bring in under any one of the questions proposed, viz.:—

I cannot help thinking that any scheme of Secondary Education which endeavours to benefit particular localities, *i.e.*, which aims at making English education largely a day-school education, will fail of its object.

The tendency in England seems to be everywhere to prefer a boarding-school education.

Nearly all our large public and grammar schools for boys, *e.g.*, Rugby, were originally day schools founded by persons for the benefit of the boys of particular towns. At the present day it is the boarders who derive the most benefit from them, and it is as boarding schools that they are chiefly thought of. The same tendency has shown itself in girls' schools. The high schools were all supposed to be day schools pure and simple, and were founded as such. Now there is hardly a high school of any merit that has not one or more boarding houses attached

to it, and many people have almost forgotten that Cheltenham College is a day school at all.

If further evidence of this tendency were needed it might be found in the fact that very many second and third rate boarding schools for girls flourish and seem to be preferred to the high schools, while I myself draw not a few of my pupils from towns like Edgbaston, Bolton, and Manchester, where high schools of peculiar excellence and reputation exist.

It seems, therefore, not unreasonable to suppose that the new public schools might soon become boarding schools and benefit other localities than those in which they are situated.

From this cause, too, it seems to me it will always be difficult to judge of the needs of any locality with regard to Secondary Education.

PENELOPE LAWRENCE,
Associate of Newnham College,
Principal of a Girls' Boarding School,
36, Sussex Square, Brighton.

MR. JAMES SCOTSON, Headmaster of the Central Higher Grade Board School, Deansgate, Manchester.

In answering the various queries you have sent me, I shall follow the advice given in the note at the end of the queries, and shall answer those questions only of which I have special knowledge or experience, or in which I am most interested.

Section II., No. 3.—I do not consider the results of the system of competitive examinations for scholarships entirely satisfactory, as they very often lead to special cramming; but still I would not by any means say they should be entirely dispensed with. There should be some leaving scholarships attached to certain elementary schools, and these should not only provide for tuition but for maintenance to some extent. Close scholarships have their evils as well as competitive ones, but a judicious use should be made of both kinds; for instance, I would suggest that, in a school like my own, where we have Standards V., VI., and VII., and then an organised science school above, it would certainly be advisable to have leaving scholarships attached to the school and awarded on examination by the managers and the teachers to those boys who they know could best take advantage of the higher education. There should also be some competitive scholarships to enable boys from other elementary schools to gain admission to the higher grade schools. Competition for scholarships.

To explain one of the evils of competitive examinations for scholarships, without "close" scholarships, I will point out how the examinations for entrance into the higher grade schools are conducted in Manchester. About 50 scholarships of the value

of 9*l.* the first year, 12*l.* the second year, and 15*l.* the third year, are offered every year for competition among the boys of all the elementary and higher grade schools in Manchester. The examination is simply a Standard VI. examination, with the addition of one specific subject, and the result is that boys from elementary schools who have had no special training in science or mathematics may, and do often gain scholarships, while others in the higher grade school, who are known to the master to be fully prepared to take advantage of the higher instruction get lower marks in the examination owing to the fact that the higher work the boy has been doing is not tested, and that such subjects as grammar, geography, or history, have not been studied at least for a year or two. A few close scholarships would remedy this evil. I have known boys in this school, who had passed second-stage mathematics and gained first-class certificates in chemistry and physics, fail in gaining a scholarship, while others in Standard VI. have been successful. It would not be right to make the examination so difficult that only the best boys in the higher grade schools would have a chance of gaining a scholarship, nor do I think it right for the examination to remain as at present. The introduction of a few close scholarships would remedy this.

Passage from one class of school to another.

Section II., No. 4.—To facilitate the passing of scholars from one class of school to another the whole system of education should be under one authority, and the schools should be so related to one another, that the work of one school should be preparatory to the work in the one above it. Instead of the famous ladder that is to reach from the gutter to the university, I would rather compare a properly organised system of education to a series of buildings with upper storeys with easy communication, having the universities at the top. Perhaps the following diagram will show my meaning.

See Diagram appended.

In the purely elementary school, the majority, perhaps more than 90 per cent. of the children, will leave and go to work as soon as they have passed the Sixth Standard. Some will find their way into the higher grade school, because their parents can afford to keep them at school a little longer, and some by means of scholarships, which not only pay the fees, but also give a little towards the support of the children, and thus compensate the poor parents to some extent for the loss of wages the child might earn. The lower part of the higher grade school, containing children in Standards IV. to VII., will consist of pupils whose parents are able to keep them at school until they are about 16 years of age. In my opinion it is most desirable that every higher grade school should have this lower department, where the children can be specially prepared to take advantage of the work in the higher grade school or in the classical secondary school. A boy of ability in an ordinary elementary school could go from the elementary school to the

higher grade school. If he wished to prepare for a profession he could be transferred to the lower division of the higher grade school, where he would be placed in the classical part and prepared for the classical department of a secondary school like the Manchester Grammar School. (In the diagram it will be seen that I have made the classical portion of a higher grade school much smaller, because I find from experience very few parents wish their children to enter a profession, especially the parents of children who attend our elementary schools.)

Parents who wish their children to remain at school until they are 15 years of age do not generally send them to a purely elementary school, but they send them to the lower division of a higher grade school, if there is one convenient, or to the lower division of a secondary school, or to some private school where the teaching and apparatus are of a most unsatisfactory character. This is one of the reasons why higher grade schools should be established in every large centre of population. I do not think, so far as my experience goes, that higher grade schools interfere with really good secondary schools, which are attended by children whose parents can afford to send them to such schools, but I do think that they have, in some cases, tended to close the guinea-a-quarter private schools taught by men who have had no special preparation for the work of teacher, and who are doing a kind of work that would not bear investigation. In this sense I think higher grade schools have been useful in those districts where they have been established. The upper division of a higher grade school is generally an organised science school, where some of the boys get one or two years' instruction in science, mathematics, and modern languages, and a few, showing special ability, are encouraged to remain for three or four years and compete for either national scholarships and exhibitions or for county council scholarships. It should always be remembered that only very few will be found to have talent which will enable them to rise to the universities and receive the advantage of that higher training and culture. What a country should do is to see that when a child has the ability is has easy access to the highest story. (*See* Diagram and the arrows pointing from the higher grade school to the royal colleges of science, &c.)

Relation of technical to general instruction

Section II., No. 6.—Distinctively technical instruction should not be given until a boy has fully decided what particular occupation he is going to adopt, and the instruction given in these technical schools should be confined to applied science, relating to the various occupations of the district in which the school is situated, and, in my opinion, ought to be given in separate buildings. One properly equipped technical school, giving purely technical instruction, would be quite sufficient for a large centre of population; for instance, I should consider

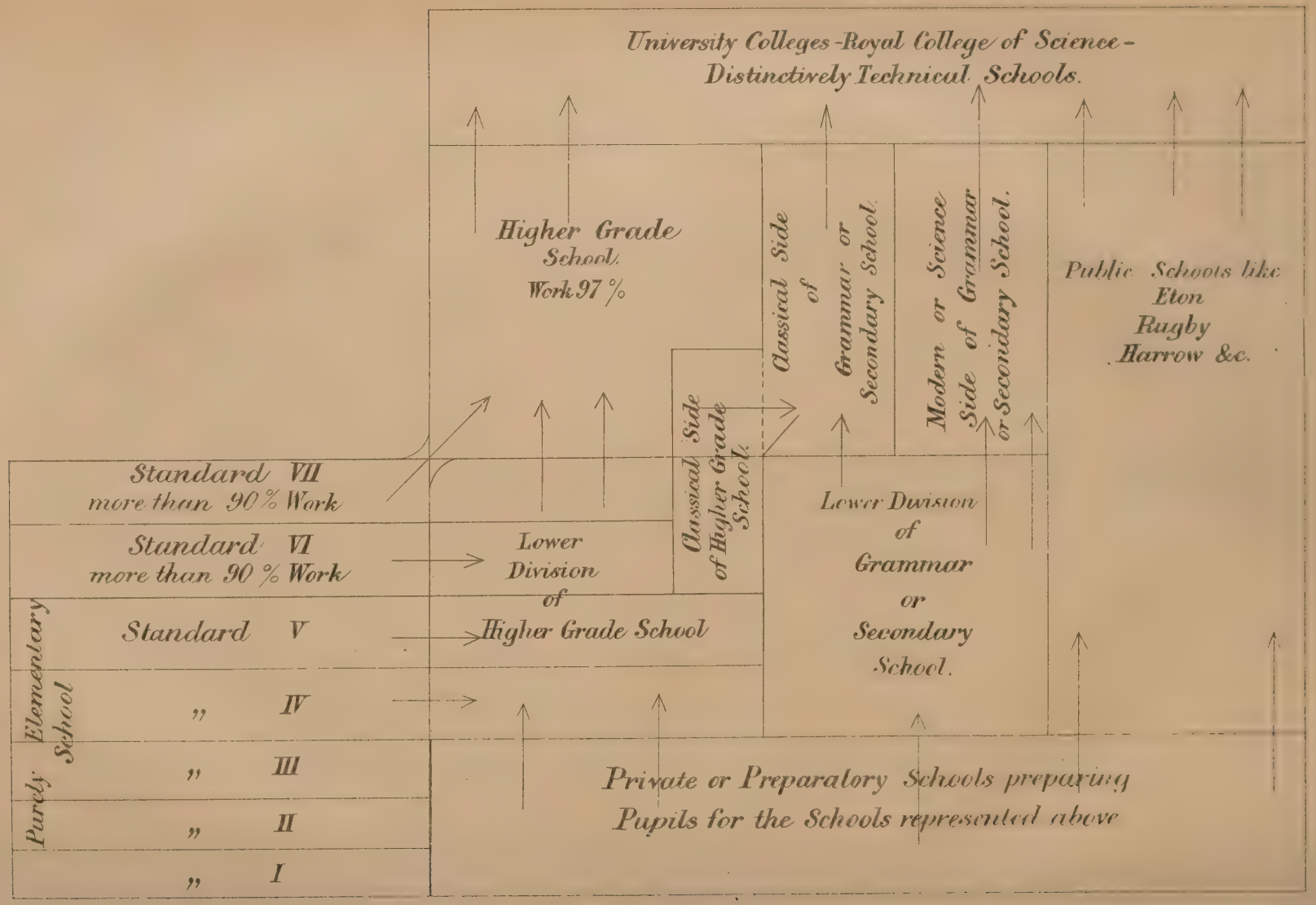
the one which is about to be built in Manchester will be quite sufficient for all south-east Lancashire. The elementary sciences and pure mathematics should be taught in ordinary higher grade schools and ordinary secondary schools, where boys are being educated not for any special occupation. It is in the establishment of technical schools that the evil of having two or more authorities becomes evident. In Manchester the technical school is undertaking work which is already being well done by the higher grade schools, the organised science evening schools, and the commercial evening classes. What has a real technical school to do with elementary science, shorthand, typewriting, book-keeping, &c.? The evil is not limited to the waste of power by the overlapping which will exist to a certain extent in every system, but it tends to destroy that harmony which should exist if really good educational work is to be done.

Provision for rural districts.

Section II., No. 7.—In rural districts, where the population is scattered, I see no better way of introducing Secondary Education than that of grading the schools already in existence. Instead of each school being complete in itself and containing all the standards, the schools should be so graded that some or parts of some schools should be adapted to the work of Secondary Education. With regard to evening schools in rural districts I would recommend that they meet on two evenings per week, as ordinary continuation schools, giving instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic, to those who leave the school at an early age and are not able to do Standard VI. work, and then on two other evenings a week as a technical school giving instruction in the elementary sciences, drawing and those subjects which would enable the county councils to give grants from the local taxation (excise) fund. Another method to meet the difficulty would be to establish school board districts and do away with all small school boards. These larger school boards might in many cases erect, in as central a position as possible, a school of the type of higher grade, teaching those subjects that would bear most on agriculture or small industries that were carried on in the immediate neighbourhood.

Inspection and examination.

Section IV.—With regard to inspection and examination I should say that it would be advisable to have little examination and much inspection. Speaking from own experience I should say that a properly qualified inspector would be able to find out the real work of a school much better by inspecting it than by any possible system of examination. Of course the inspector should have the power to use to a limited extent, examination, either written or oral, to find out whether the ground professed to be covered has been really understood by the pupils. By inspection, I mean seeing a school fully at work according to the ordinary time-table, examining registers and all records, noting the supply of apparatus and other materials, and above all observing how the teachers give their lessons and ascertaining their qualifications for performing their duties. As I said when examined



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before the Royal Commission on Education in the year 1886, I have seen a science inspector examine the note books of the boys in the subject of mechanics and then, taking one in his hand, ask questions to ascertain how far the pupils were acquainted with what they professed to have done, and in less than 20 minutes he had a better knowledge of the work done, and of what the boys understood, than he could possibly have gained by any written examination. It would be a great misfortune to introduce simple examination in any school organised for the purpose of giving Secondary Education. If inspection is relied upon almost entirely for the assessment of grants to schools, whether elementary or secondary, it is absolutely necessary that the gentlemen appointed to be inspectors must have a practical knowledge of the work in these schools. It would certainly be most unfortunate in my opinion to separate inspection and examination, and to have them placed under two different authorities. The examination should be subsidiary to inspection, and should only be resorted to by the inspector to confirm the impression he has gained by the inspection of the school. No examination* conducted by a second person could do this effectually.

System of Science and Art Department.

Section VI., No. 2.—The administration of grants by the Science and Art Department is most unsatisfactory. The whole of the grants may be said to be dependent upon examination. Even the capitation grant is not paid unless the student has made 250 attendances and passed in one science subject. The very existence of these higher grade schools depends so much upon these grants that the master cannot possibly make his time-table on truly educational lines, he must constantly think of the grant. The result is that a one-sided education is given; sciences are taught, literature and modern languages are squeezed out as it were. If the grants made to higher grade schools were dependent upon inspection rather than examination, it would be possible so to organise them that children in the lower division of the higher grade school, whose parents intended them for a profession, could be prepared thoroughly to join the classical side of a really secondary school, where they would receive an education that would lead up to the universities, if necessary; while those children whose parents wished them to go to some industry could receive that scientific instruction which would enable them to understand the scientific principles upon which the industry was based. It would also be possible to give a commercial education to those who were entering into trade or commerce. Some few before entering on the work of life would probably get scholarships that would enable them to have three years' training at the Royal School of Science. (Again, *see* Diagram.)

Age for leaving elementary for

Section VI., No. 3.—"At what age should children leave elementary for secondary schools?"

secondary schools.

In answering this question the upper division of a higher grade school must be regarded as a secondary school. Boys attending elementary schools should be drafted into the lower division of the higher grade school after they have passed Standard VI., that is, when they are about twelve years of age. If intended for a profession, they ought certainly to join the lower division of the higher grade school by ten years of age, so that they may be prepared to enter the secondary school (not necessarily the higher grade), where the classics are mainly taught, by the age of thirteen or fourteen. If intended for some industry or commerce they would receive all the necessary instruction in the higher grade school, which is pre-eminently fitted to continue the education of boys leaving an elementary school and to prepare them for business.

Training of teachers.

Section VII., No. 1.—I would strongly advise the extension of day training colleges for the training of all teachers whether in elementary or secondary schools.

Teachers should receive their education, as far as possible, along with those who are preparing for the various professions. The bifurcation should take place after they have studied under the same professors those subjects which are common to all professions. They should aim at obtaining a degree, but just as the medical student must have special training in those subjects that are peculiar to the profession, so the teacher should have special lectures on the art and science of teaching, the philosophy of education, psychology, and other allied subjects. Those adopting the profession of teacher should also, during the academical training, have actual practice in teaching, and give criticism lessons in the various kinds of schools. This actual practice in a school is equivalent to the infirmary practice of the medical student.

THE RIGHT REVEREND THE LORD BISHOP OF DURHAM.

Universities.

I. 1.—(*a.*) The normal maximum age for entrance to the University should be in my opinion 20. It is worthy of consideration whether the limit might not be fixed most advantageously by fixing the maximum age of admission to the triposes (*e.g.*, at 23, or at the highest 25). Cases of individual hardship would be more than compensated by definitely limiting the period of preparatory and disciplinary study.

(*b.*) I am very strongly of opinion that no foundation scholarships should be offered for competition to students who have not completed a year's residence in the University. The present system has grown up under external pressure, and, I believe, against the judgment of the educational authorities at Cambridge. The offering of the highest rewards attainable by undergraduates at College for School work is, as far as I can judge, injurious to education both at School and at the University, and injurious also morally.

(*a.*) Such competition encourages the premature acquisition of results available for purposes of examination without the patient investigation and study which gives to them their intellectual value.

(*b.*) It tends, at least, to deprive University work of its peculiar character and interest.

(*c.*) It secures to the ablest candidates a considerable income on their entrance to the University, and practically destroys the class who in former times represented by a happy necessity "plain living and high thinking."

II. 3.—Competitive entrance scholarships at School are, I believe, a very grave and an almost unmixed evil. Secondary Schools and their arrangements.

(*a.*) They disturb the course of early education, which ought to be occupied with the development of character and the quickening of varied interests.

(*b.*) They lead the youngest boys to appropriate "knowledge" far in excess of the discipline through which it gains its educational value.

(*c.*) They necessarily present learning from the first as a means for gaining personal advantages.

II. 4.—The Bursaries, &c., which are commonly established in Schools to provide for the passage from a School of one grade to a School of a higher grade, appear to me to have been sufficient in such cases as have come under my direct observation.

It is, however, very greatly to be regretted that adequate provision has not been made for non-competitive free admissions to the old foundation Schools.

II. 5.—I cannot think that secondary Schools should be places for technical education. My experience leads me to believe that their general efficiency has been lessened by the recent increase in the number of subjects included in their course.

With regard to the other questions, I will only remark that any regulations which impair the freedom and individuality of the teacher will, in my judgment, just so far prove to be destructive of that force which has hitherto been most effective in forming English character. On this general ground, I hold that the machinery contemplated in vii.–x. would be either inoperative or injurious.

Mr. J. G. FITCH, LL.D.

(1.) In the prospect of some measures whereby secondary schools shall be brought under public supervision, it may be useful to refer to that department of educational work which has already been subjected to such supervision, and to inquire how far, and under what modifications the methods which have Inspection and Examination.

been employed by the Education Department in elementary schools would be applicable if extended over a wider area.

Original purpose of Government inspection.

(2.) It is important to remember that the original object of inspection by that Department was simply to verify the fulfilment of the conditions laid down by Parliament for distributing a grant. The Committee of Council was called into existence in 1839 to superintend the annual disposal of a certain sum of public money, and inspection was from the first insisted on as a necessary means of satisfying Parliament that this money was rightly applied. Codes have been devised from time to time to prescribe the regulations under which the amount of the grant should be assessed; but the primary purpose of those codes was not to control education, or to make all schools conform to one type; but to act as a safeguard upon the public expenditure, and to secure that the nation should receive in some form a full equivalent for its outlay.

(3.) The system of "payment by results" is commonly attributed to Mr. Lowe. It was, in fact, first suggested and recommended by the Duke of Newcastle's Commission of 1858, and in a much cruder and more drastic form than that ultimately adopted. The Commissioners were so much impressed with the inability of the system of inspection then in force to secure the individual progress of the scholars that they advised "a searching "examination of every child," and recommended "that the "position and prospects of the teacher should be dependent "on the results of this examination." Mr. Lowe did not adopt this view to the full extent. But he abolished all personal relations between the teachers and the Government, and determined to pay grants to *managers* only, and to leave them free to make their own contracts with teachers. He regarded it as his chief duty to dispense grants in aid to local bodies, and he devised a scheme for determining the amount of such aid by the results of individual examination in reading, writing, and arithmetic. That scheme has been materially modified by degrees in subsequent years, but it still remains true that the grants paid from the Imperial Treasury to local managers are intended to be proportioned to the work done by the several schools, and are made dependent partly on the numbers in attendance and partly on the efficiency of the teaching as tested by periodical examination. Since the State does not pay the teachers nor appoint them, and has hardly any other means of securing the efficiency of the schools, than by giving, reducing, or withholding a grant, the reasons for graduating the amount of that grant according to the proved success of the work done are probably stronger than may appear at first sight.

(4.) It may be presumed that if schools of another character are to be brought under public scrutiny, the object will be, not to apportion a grant of money, nor to lay down authoritative schemes of study, but simply to obtain for the public information respecting the numbers, equipment, staff, and resources of such

schools; their educational aims, and the success with which those aims have been practically attained.

(5.) The methods adopted should manifestly be determined by the object in view. The plan of the Education Department is to secure as H.M. Inspector for each district a man who has had a liberal education, generally one who has taken honours at his university, to confide to him a large portion of the work of inspection and examination, and to make him responsible for the final report, but to give him the assistance of one or more subordinate officers, who have had experience as elementary teachers, and who can take a share in the detailed work of examination. It has been often urged that the inspectors should necessarily be chosen from the ranks of elementary schoolmasters. The heads of the Department have never accepted this view; partly, it may be presumed, because although an experienced teacher knows more of the *technique* of his profession, and is likely to make fewer mistakes at first in the business of examining, he is not always more sure in the end to estimate a school fairly than one who comes to the work without prepossessions. A further reason is, no doubt, to be found in the fact that there are other duties belonging to the work of an inspector; *e.g.*, conferring with boards and committees, holding inquiries, preparing questions for pupil teachers and certificate examinations, and revising the papers of adult students—duties which require for their proper fulfilment a broad, general cultivation and knowledge, and not merely an acquaintance with the details of school work. Qualifications of inspectors.

(6.) In a large or populous district which is served by an inspector or sub-inspector and one or more inspector's assistants, it is usual in grouping the members of the staff to have regard to their several aptitudes; *e.g.*, if the inspector has no knowledge of music he takes care that one of his assistants shall be specially proficient in it; and if his own tastes lie in the literary direction he seeks to have one member of the staff possessing a good knowledge of science and of mathematics. Assistant inspectors.

(7.) Now, however, that so much encouragement has been given to choice and variety in school courses, a demand has arisen for specialists as inspectors, and hence the Science and Art Department sends its own inspector to examine drawing; a new staff of science inspectors has just been appointed; and for such subjects as music, needlework, cookery, and laundry work, there is an increasing disposition to rely on the services of experts.

(8.) There is an obvious advantage in thus entrusting the criticism and examination of certain higher subjects to persons specially qualified to form a judgment on them. But there are some serious disadvantages attending the system. Each specialist examines in his own subject only, and is apt to see that subject cut of its true proportion as a factor in the general education Inspectors for special subjects.

of a scholar. His influence, especially if he is a person of any enthusiasm or power, tends to exact from the teacher undue efforts in one particular direction. A headmaster who is subject to the pressure or influence of several such independent authorities finds it difficult to see all the parts of his work in true perspective, and to give the necessary unity to his school course. And when, as in the case of drawing and science, under the present *régime*, he looks to one department of the State to award a special grant, having no relation to the general efficiency of the school, the temptation to consider what is likely to "pay" best tends still farther to cause a serious dislocation of his plans. Moreover, there is obviously a great waste of power and of money when independent examiners make separate journeys to small and obscure places for the sole purpose of reporting on such very elementary drawing or science as is likely to be taught in a humble school.

Economy of power needed in distributing the duties of the inspecting staff.

(9.) An ideal system would be established if an area sufficiently large were placed under the supervision of one district inspector, whose experience and breadth of view enabled him to recognise different forms of good work, and to judge of a school, whether elementary or of the higher grade, *as a whole*. He should have a staff of assistants all of whom should be competent to take a part in the general business of examining in ordinary school subjects, but each of whom should, in addition, have paid particular attention to some one subject, *e.g.*, one should be strong on the science side, one should be a competent examiner in music, one should be able to estimate elementary drawing, and one to report on any form of manual or industrial work which a school might include in its course. The district inspector should know how to apportion the duties of his staff, and to provide that every school which had aimed at exceptional excellence in any one subject should be visited by some one competent to judge of the work. He would, in fact, send specialists where—and only where—they were needed. But it is essential that the reports of all subordinate officers be made through the chief, that he should be responsible for the report communicated to the managers, and that if a grant is made to the school it should be made in *one* sum, calculated in such a way as to recognise in due proportion all the work done by the school.

Present examining bodies to be recognized, not superseded.

(10.) Then if it be proposed to examine secondary schools, whether grants are to be awarded to them or not, the same general principle should as far as possible be kept in view. But it is in no sense necessary or desirable that there should be a uniform system of examination applicable to all secondary schools alike. There are several well-known examining bodies whose services it is very desirable to retain. The Universities of Oxford, Cambridge and London, the Joint Board, and the College of Preceptors all possess the public confidence, and hold examinations differing somewhat in character, according to the

special circumstances and aims of each school. For example, the regulations of the University of London require that before the examination the governing body or the principal should send in a statement specifying:—

"(*a.*) The number of classes in the school, and the number and average age of the scholars in each class.

"(*b.*) The subjects of instruction, the text books in use, and the degree of proficiency attained in each class.

"(*c.*) The prizes or other distinctions, if any, which the examiner is expected to award.

"(*d.*) The extent to which the teachers of the school will be willing, if desired, to take part in the examination.

"(*e.*) Any other particular which, in the judgment of the authorities of the school, are of material importance for the information or guidance of the examiner.

"The examination will, as nearly as possible, follow the course of the ordinary school work."

Examination should follow, not control, the school work.

(11.) This last condition is important. It should not be the duty of any examining or superior authority to prescribe, in any other terms than those of the school scheme itself, what should be taught. Its function should be to inquire what are the requirements of that scheme, and then to ascertain how and with what success those requirements have been fulfilled. For all the purposes contemplated in any public examination of intermediate and higher schools, it should suffice if the report of the university or other recognised educational authority be produced, and a list be furnished of all scholars who had passed, within a year, a local or other examination. It would be the office of the district superintendent or inspector to call for such reports and details, and to communicate them to the local or Imperial authority under which he worked. His own functions as an examiner would only be called into exercise in the case of those secondary schools in his own district which were not subject to the supervision of any other competent authority.

No need for a rigid severance of primary from secondary school inspection.

(12.) For a similar reason to that already urged against the multiplication of specialist inspectors, it seems undesirable that there should be a separate staff of secondary school inspectors, with a sharply defined area of duty. Such a system would be open to objection from an economic point of view, and would render the due co-ordination and inter-action of the different parts of our educational machinery more difficult than it should be. It would be an advantage if in each district there were some one person or authority cognisant of all the educational resources of that district, and able, when occasion arose, to facilitate the transfer of scholars from one school to a higher, and to bring all the schools, whether primary or secondary, into harmonious and helpful relation with each other.

(13.) A difficulty no doubt arises in determining the authority under which a district officer with these enlarged powers should act, and to which he should make his report. At present inspectors are appointed by the Lord President of the Council, and are concerned exclusively with elementary education, for which alone a grant is made by Parliament. The only local educational authorities, other than the trustees and managers of single schools, are the School Boards, which also are by law restricted to the province of primary instruction, and the County Councils which are mainly concerned with technical instruction. Any enlargement of the powers either of the Education Department or of the local authorities would require Parliamentary sanction, and would imply that the cost of inspecting and other expenses would be included in the education votes or paid out of local rates. But assuming that this step were taken, both the local authority and the central authority would have cognizance, not of elementary schools alone, but of the whole field of public instruction. The school boards or county authorities would be elected in view of the larger functions which it was proposed to assign to them: and the Education Department, under a responsible Minister, would have the oversight of secondary as well as primary schools. In each case the duties would be performed by delgation and division of labour among subordinates, and the establishment of separate and co-ordinate bodies, each cognizant of some one particular portion of educational work, would become unnecessary. The whole problem of defining the duties and relations of Local and Imperial authorities is full of difficulty, and is doubtless one to which the Commissioners will devote much attention. Without venturing to anticipate their decisions on this point, I take leave to submit for their consideration these general conclusions: (1.) That the multiplication of inspectors for special purposes and subjects should as far as possible be avoided. (2.) That the practice of awarding by different bodies separate grants for particular subjects has an injurious effect on schools and teachers, and should be discontinued. (3.) That much of what is needed in the inspection and examination of secondary schools is already done, and well done, by the Universities, and that it would be desirable to provide for the continuance of their work. (4.) That much else of what is needed to ensure for the public trustworthy information respecting the buildings, staff, character, aims, and resources of intermediate schools could be easily done by the staff of the Education Department if it were re-organised and if its powers were duly enlarged for this special purpose.

Distinction between inspecting and examining.

(14.) Much discussion has arisen respecting the comparative merits of inspection and of examination; and of late there has been a tendency in the administration of our public elementary schools to rely more on the former and less on the latter. By the early Codes of the Education Department the method of

individual examination was used as the sole means of measuring the efficiency of a school. The amount of the grant was determined by counting the number of "passes," and necessarily fluctuated year by year. This method of "payment by results" proved to be open to serious objection. It set up a very imperfect standard of excellence. It tempted teachers to adopt mechanical methods of securing the maximum number of "passes." It often led to the exclusion on insufficient grounds of children who were considered not likely to pass. And it took far too little heed of the intelligence and discipline of the school, the moral influence of the teacher, or the spirit in which his work was done. It estimated, in fact, only such results as could be tabulated under an arithmetical formula, and it left out of view many forms of result which, though they cannot be easily measured, are yet among the highest which a good school should seek to attain. Experience in time discredited this rigid system, and it is not surprising that teachers who had learned to associate the practice of individual examination with a wrong method of computing the grant were led to view individual examination itself as a grievance, and to prefer the method of class and sample examination and general inspection.

(15.) But the connexion of the award of a money grant with a particular mode of examination was accidental and temporary only, and ought not to conceal from us the fact that what seemed a grievance to the teacher was a privilege to the child, and one which was specially valued by the parents. A collective and class examination may be the best for determining the share which a school should receive from a public fund; but for all other purposes contemplated in the examination of a school—for the encouragement of merit, for the information of parents, for the discovery of defects, for securing thoroughness, for the promotion of the scholar to a higher class, for the award of prizes, scholarships, and leaving certificates—the examination of the individual scholar is indispensable. In fact, all examination which is worth anything must always be that of individuals. And although the proportion of scholars who can pass an examination appropriate to their age is not a perfect measure of a school's efficiency, it is, on the whole, one of the best and fairest measures which has yet been adopted.

Their comparative merits and usefulness.

(16.) There is another very important aspect of the question, as it concerns the comparative usefulness of inspection and examination. Inspecting a school implies a critical observation of the methods of its daily work. It also implies that the authority which orders the inspection is more concerned with the processes and organisation in use in a school than with the value of the results achieved. To make such a scrutiny efficient, there should be many visits without notice, and this means considerable expense, and some chance of irritation. An examining body which undertakes to certify, not that the work of the school has been successfully done, but that it has been

done in the right way, assumes two things: (1) that there is one and only one "right way," and (2) that the inspector knows it. But these are large assumptions. We have not yet reached such a stage in the development of either the art or science of education as will justify us in saying that any one method of teaching or organisation is the best, or that the opinion on these points of any one person—however skilled or experienced—ought to be conclusive. There are already in use many very efficient yet different modes of controlling and instructing a school, and many still better methods have yet to be discovered. And the inspector who has a strong preference for one method may interfere mischievously with the lawful freedom and independence of teachers if he feels it to be his chief duty, not to ascertain what has been done, but to propagate his own views as to the way in which it should be done.

Examination on the whole the fairest test of a school's work.

(17.) Moreover, it should not be forgotten that inspectors are much more likely to differ from one another in their estimate of educational processes than in their judgment of the actual proficiency attained by the scholars. Any competent examiner who knows his subjects well, and has before him the programme of studies, the list of the text books, and all needful particulars about the age of the scholars, may be safely trusted to give a fair report. It is far easier to secure equity and practical uniformity of judgment in the examination of the results of teaching than in criticising the plans and educational theories of the teachers.

(18.) I conclude, therefore, that although inspection and a general estimate of a school as a whole may be valuable for some purposes, and although a skilled inspector may often render great service in calling attention to methods which are obviously wrong, yet in contemplating any future action, whereby secondary schools may be brought under public supervision, examination is of more importance than inspection. It is more likely to be just and impartial. It is more helpful to the scholars, and more serviceable and satisfactory to their parents. And it certainly interferes less with the independence, originality, and personal enthusiasm of the teachers—educational factors which under any conceivable system it is of the highest importance to encourage.

Mr. JOHN STEWART.

Registration of Teachers.

For the improvement of Secondary Education the one great desideratum is a Registration Bill. Such Bill should make registration *compulsory*, and allow no new schools to be opened except by those who have taken teachers' certificates from recognised authorities, such as the universities, College of Preceptors, &c. Schools in existence at the time of the passing of the Registration Bill should be placed on the register for

three years (or five years). To secure retention on the register after three years, the principal should produce evidence of fitness to teach. This evidence might be either—

(*a.*) The passing of the examination that would be required of anyone who should open a new school, or—

(*b.*) Proof that the teaching in the school is good.

The proof that the teaching in the school is good would be—

(i.) By inspection.

(ii.) Success of the pupils at accepted public examinations.

If on the register note were made of where the teacher was trained (if trained), a great stimulus would be given to intending teachers to seek such training, and compulsory training would be found to be unnecessary.

Registration of Schools.

Similarly, if on the register, schools that were annually inspected were marked as "inspected schools," the number of schools so marked would increase annually, and the time would not be long before it would be commonly thought to be a sign of inferiority for a school not to be conducted by a trained teacher and annually inspected. (By inspection I mean what Mr. Brown means, not a viva voce or written examination, but inspection of the teaching, the premises, and the apparatus.)

Objections to rate for Secondary Schools.

To go beyond the marking of a register by raising money by a rate for the erection of Government secondary schools, would be—

(i.) To unfairly compete with existing schools.

(ii.) To work in the direction of a rigid uniformity.

(iii.) To make a demand on the poorer classes which they can ill afford to meet.

(iv.) To make those who are not so poor pay for what (I believe) they do not want and do not need.

Miss A. BEATRICE ANDERTON, B.A.

II. 1. Public Provision for Preparatory Schools.

Secondary schools and their arrangements.

Public provision for preparatory schools of both classes seems to me entirely unnecessary.

(*α.*) In the first place, ample provision for them already exists under the care of capable men and women devoted to their work; and (*β*) secondly, those which are now being carried on are in good order. For the reason of existence of a preparatory school ensures thoroughness of work: (A.) the curriculum has to be arranged (allowing for necessary freedom) to meet the requirements of the first grade (or second grade) school later on, and this ensures the probability of method and regularity: while (B.) the efficient carrying out of the curriculum is ensured by the desire for success in admission to the upper school. If

the scholars fail to gain such admission, their failure will be attributed to deficiency in preparation, so that it is to the headmaster's interest to keep the standard of work high.

Especially with regard to boarding-schools I should deprecate any provision by Government. There are already numbers of excellent schools of this description: further, one of the chief aims of the boarding-school is to supply, as far as possible, the home-life and training which children miss by leaving home, and this can unquestionably be best done by one who has absolute control. Interference by the State would be almost as fatal, in my opinion, as interference in our own homes.

II. 2.—The necessity of a separate second grade school seems to depend very much upon circumstances.

(α.) Where the number of boys or girls doing first grade work is comparatively small (*e.g.*, in certain private and proprietary schools, from which scholars pass on directly to the universities) it would be a needless multiplication of machinery to establish a separate second grade school; the work can be well done from beginning to end without injury to those who are doing either lower or higher work, the differentiation of subjects being arranged for; while the combination of younger with older is in many cases highly beneficial.

(β.) In certain wealthy districts second grade schools are not needed; preparation for the first grade schools is supplied by private tuition.

(γ.) Where numbers are large, as in our public schools, separate second grade schools seem to be a necessity, and I think should certainly be under separate management, in order to avoid excessive centralisation, and thus to secure that freedom of thought and action which is essential to real education.

Third grade schools should, in my opinion, be abolished, and their function fulfilled by higher grade elementary schools: I do not see how it is possible to give an adequate training for the small fees charged.

Inspection and examination.

IV. 1.—I do not myself believe that interference by the State is necessary at all further than to provide for the registration of teachers and schools. That England has never been so keenly alive to the cause of education as at the present time is shown by the great steps which have been taken in the matter of training of teachers, the agitation for the registration of teachers, and the amelioration of public and private schools throughout the country. These reforms have originated in the individual, and may be safely trusted to the individual to be carried out. The parents themselves are beginning to look into the education of their children, and that is a great safeguard for the efficiency of the schools. The life that is showing itself everywhere will, I believe, in time thoroughly revidify our system of education; to try to hurry what must be slow if it is to be sure is very dangerous to the cause of free and true education.

If, however, it be necessary to have supervision, I should decidedly advocate *inspection as opposed to examination*, the inspection being carried on by men and women appointed by a central board, *not* by a local authority. Outside tests of some sort are necessary to keep up the standard of work in a school; these are already supplied to some extent by public examinations; but many boys and most girls are not allowed to enter into the competitions therein involved, and the deficiency is supplied, with some degree of satisfaction, by examination or inspection of the school by men sent from the university for the purpose. *Examination*, I hold, should be left entirely to the will of the headmaster or headmistress; *inspection* (in which I include no examination by the inspector) by a central board would presumably be more satisfactory in many ways than if performed by the university; but it must be subject to certain conditions:—

(α.) It should be conducted by men who not only have good attainments, but are or have been teachers, and are thus in sympathy with both teacher and taught.

(β.) Due notice should be given to the headmaster or mistress of the inspection.

(γ.) It should be limited in its application to—

(1.) The proper sanitation of the school buildings.

(2.) The fitness of the headmaster or mistress as regards attainments and training.

(3.) The fitness of the staff, both as to numbers and as to attainments and training.

(4.) The adequacy of apparatus for the purposes of the particular kind of school; *i.e.*, scientific apparatus should not be demanded where the school is professedly classical, and *vice versa*.

Endowments.

V.—With regard to endowments, I feel strongly that so long as they are used for the ends for which the benefactor left them they should remain intact. Those, however, whose purpose is now a dead letter (*e.g.*, doles, endowments for apprenticing, &c.) should, I think, be transferred. They might with advantage be massed, under the direction of the central authority, and distributed among those districts where education is difficult and falls heavily on the ratepayer.

Registration of teachers.

VII. 2.—The *sine quâ non* of State interference in education is, in my opinion, the registration of teachers; it is to this measure that we look to clear the teaching body of unworthy members, and thus to make it a recognised profession.

(α.) With regard to details, I agree with the Bill put forward by the Teachers' Guild in giving a place on the register to all who have been engaged in teaching for two years, or who will have been so engaged within two years from the passing of it, and after that time in admitting only those who are qualified by training.

(β.) The privileges would be exactly similar to those accruing to members of other registered professions—recognition by the public and by fellow members. Absence of name from register would mean incapability to recover fees.

(γ.) I do not think that schools should be prevented by law from employing teachers who are not on the register, for it is conceivable that really good teachers (notably in music) would be unable to pass the necessary examination through constitution and temperament.

(δ.) The registration should, in my opinion, be directed by an educational council, constituted on the lines laid down by the Teachers' Guild Bill, but with certain alterations:—

(1.) In consideration of the great share held in Secondary Education by private schools, I should recommend that two members of the Private Schools' Association be added to the council.

(2.) Of the four additional members I would suggest that at least two be secondary teachers, elected by secondary teachers.

(ε.) If this second proviso be made, I should advocate the formation of one register for all teachers, as being simpler, and as a recognition of the unity of all education; without some such proviso the one register would, I fear, be impracticable, as the general body of registered teachers might well be very imperfectly represented owing to the majority of elementary teachers.

District authorities for Secondary Education.

VIII.—1. I am of opinion that the district authority should have as large an area as is consistent with efficient work—not less than a county, unless a high population demands otherwise.

2.—This district authority should be created *ad hoc*, by legislation. I should not give the control of the education of a district to county councils or local board, because I fear it would be impossible to avoid difficulties, arising from—

(α.) The presence of men on the board unskilled in the subject.

(β.) The presence of local petty feelings and of party spirit.

(γ.) The tendency of the county council to narrow down education to scientific and technical instruction.

The authority must be as broadly representative as possible, and I do not believe that it is possible, from past experience, to get this broad representation by allowing the county council to co-opt experts. As far as I can see, it will be necessary to have a duly elected council entirely independent of county councils and other local powers.

5.—The composition of such an authority might be, perhaps—

One fourth county council members.

One fourth school board members.

One fourth university men and members of local educational bodies.

One fourth actual teachers.

6. (α.)—While the school board is in existence I think it would cause needless friction for the district authority to interfere at all in the management of elementary education.

(β.)—1. Where the district authority decides that a new school is needed, and has obtained permission from the central authority to found that school, I suppose that it will necessarily control the governing body of that school.

2. Where it grants money to a secondary school already existing, justice will demand that it shall have representation on the governing body, in proportion to the amount of aid given.

3. Otherwise I should strongly deprecate its interference with secondary schools.

(γ.) The functions of the district authority should be simply the creation of new schools and supervision of these; this creation to be done only after proof that the existing provision is insufficient, or after the central authority has been satisfied by inspection that the teaching in the existing schools is not good, or is unsuited to the particular needs of the district.

(δ.) I would give it no authority for examination or inspection in any schools but those founded by itself. All inspection (State-examination I do not favour, as shown above) should in my opinion be carried on by the central authority.

IX.—(α.) A central board will, I think, be highly necessary to prevent that narrowness on the one hand which would arise from entire government by local boards, and the danger on the other hand of the change of policy and of the excessive centralisation, and consequent stereotyping, which would arise from the entire government by a Minister of Education. Central Education Board.

(β.) Its functions would be to guide and control local authorities, to revise and ratify their schemes, to provide for the inspection of schools and the registration of teachers, and to act as a court of appeal for teachers.

(γ.) In these functions it would be advised and aided by a Minister of Education, who would be unable to act independently of it.

(δ.) For the sake of simplicity *it would be the educational council appointed to manage the registration of teachers*, and of whose composition I have spoken above.

(ε.) Its powers would be limited to the functions mentioned in (B), inspection of schools being confined to the four subjects mentioned in IV. 1.

X 1.—I think it would materially aid the reform of education in this country if schools were registered, either in a separate register like that of teachers, or under the parochial list. Such a register would give:—

Name of school.

Grade of school.

Number, sex, description, and extreme ages of scholars

Curriculum.
Scale of payments.
Number and qualifications of staff.
Description of buildings and surroundings.

Any headmaster or headmistress should gain admission for his or her school to the register through inspection by the Educational Council (central authority). The privileges would be those gained by teachers from admission to the register; the advantage of having a complete list of secondary schools is obvious.

Founding of new schools.

X 4.—In founding a new school in a neighbourhood, I think the greatest care should be taken to find out with regard to existing schools:—

(1.) Whether they have adequate accommodation for the children of the neighbourhood.

(2.) Whether they are giving adequate instruction, *i.e.*, whether the teaching is good and suited to the requirements of the neighbourhood.

So long as these conditions are satisfied, whether the schools are public, proprietary, or private, the planting of a new school seems to me to be disastrous. The new school will have to be paid for out of the rates, and the parents who wish to leave their children under the care of old and well-tried teachers will be unable to pay both burdens, and must perforce send them to the State school.

If the teaching in any school is good but the accommodation inadequate, I think that the offer should be made to the school of receiving a grant in order to extend its premises, this grant entailing representation in the management of the school. It is most likely that private schoolmasters would not agree to aid on such terms, because their great principle is freedom to carry out their own views; a further possibility should then, I think, be given them, viz., to sell the school to the district authority; if they decline this alternative they show themselves willing to run the risk of competition.

I am most strongly of opinion that private schools should be treated exactly like public schools in this matter; that they should be tested as others are tested, and be held in due regard if they are efficient.

Moreover, I feel most decidedly that scholarships granted by the county council should be held in public and private schools indifferently so long as the teaching is found by inspection to be suitable.

X 5.—I was myself educated in a day school in which boys and girls were taught together from the beginning to the end of their school life. I entered the school at six and remained in it till I matriculated at 16. The school (Priory House School, Lower Clapton) was carried on for 35 years upon these principles, first by my uncle and afterwards by my father, and throughout that time the method resulted in signal success.

The success was due to a strict surveillance on the part of the teachers, to the thoroughly high tone in the school, and to the presence of lady teachers in the lower forms. The girls took their places in the classes exactly as the boys did; there was a friendly rivalry between them, the boys being brighter in some subjects, the girls in others. In the playground the boys and girls of the lower forms played together, those of the upper separately.

I think I may justly say that the girls, by taking all the subjects of a liberal boy's education, and by looking on boys as companions, gained a breadth of view and a sensible way of looking at things which are of the greatest advantage in girlhood and in after life; while the boys were kept simple and refined by the presence of the girls, without in the least losing their manliness.

At the same time I doubt whether the system would be successful where the class of children is not high; the difficulties would at any rate be very great, owing to the danger of a low tone and the exceedingly strict supervision that would be needed in consequence.

A. Beatrice Anderton, B.A. (Lond.)

Miss E. E. M. CREAK.

Sir,

In accordance with the wish you have expressed, I beg to submit some remarks on some of the queries put by the Commissioners. It may be convenient to begin by briefly stating my scholastic experience. On leaving Cambridge I was assistant mistress for a year in the Plymouth High School, which is under a local company.

From June 1876 to July 1883 I was headmistress of the Brighton High School under the Girls' Public Day School Company. At that time there was practically no second grade school for girls in Brighton. The Brighton School was examined annually by the Oxford and Cambridge Joint Board.

From September 1883 to the present date I have been headmistress of the Girls' High School on King Edward VI.'s Foundation in Birmingham. There are four second grade schools for girls on the foundation.

This school is examined annually by the Cambridge Syndicate.

Section II. Question 2.—I am decidedly of opinion that when a first grade school exists a second grade school is also needed. A second grade school should not be an inferior first grade school, as it must be if the same subjects are taken in it

Secondary schools and their arrangements.

as in the first grade school, but a school first rate of its kind, not attempting as many subjects as a first grade school, but carrying what subjects it does attempt to a high stage of efficiency. A girl leaving a first grade school at 15 or 16 takes away a mere fragment of an education; a girl leaving a properly organised second grade school at the same age should have an education complete as far as it goes, *e.g.*, I would not attempt Latin in a second grade school, and the time thus saved would enable the second grade girl at 16 to obtain nearly as good a knowledge of French as the first grade girl at 19. As far as teaching goes it might be possible to teach the first and second grade girls together up to the age of 12, but in many localities social prejudices would interfere with this.

It is also desirable that the schools should be under the same management, so as to keep the schools in touch, and discharge—prevent as far as possible—children intended for the first grade school from remaining in the second grade school after 12 or 13.

Question 4.—It is probably desirable in all secondary schools to have some entrance scholarships covering the fees, some similar scholarships awarded in the schools, and some giving a money payment beyond the fees. If a girl from a lower grade of school can win one of these in open competition well and good, otherwise I do not consider it to the interest of the girl or the school to bring her in by artificial means. Unless she has marked ability there is no prospect of her finding a satisfactory career open to her at the close of her school career. It is hardly worth while to spend public money to enable a girl to earn 20*l.* a year as a daily governess.

Question 5.—I should like all girls to be taught needlework (including dressmaking), cooking, domestic economy, and hygiene as part of their regular school coursing, other technical subjects should be taught in technical schools—there is a waste of apparatus and of teaching power in teaching them in ordinary schools. But it would be very desirable in first grade schools to arrange for one or two special classes for girls who are taking up music, drawing, &c. These classes should be arranged so as to give the girl more time for their technical studies than in the ordinary classes, and the curriculum should also be modified. At present a girl who wanted to take up art, for instance, has to leave us about 16, and the headmaster of the school of art and myself agree that it is very desirable that she should pursue her general education further, and also—and this is quite as important—that she should be kept under a closer discipline than is possible at the school of art.

Inspection and examination.

Section IV., Question 1. *Inspection.*—There are two points with regard to which inspection is much needed, the buildings provided and the amount of work demanded of pupils and teachers.

At present the ventilation, warming, and lighting of class-rooms, the sanitary arrangements, &c. are often very unsatisfactory. As an illustration of the importance of these, I may mention some experience of my own with regard to lighting. The school was opened in September 1883, and from then to June 1889 was in badly lighted and ventilated rooms; by June 1889 25 per cent. of the girls in the four highest forms were wearing glasses. In June 1889 we removed to sunny, airy, well-lighted premises, and, though for the last three years we have had a regular eye test in force, the per-centage wearing glasses has been steadily sinking till it is now only 12½.

Further, I am convinced much mischief is being done, especially to town children by overwork. I have come across case after case in which children have been working from 6 a.m. to 10 p.m., with short intervals for meals and for going to and from school. And teachers are nearly, if not quite, as badly off; I have met many who have been working 60 and 70 hours a week, 77 in one case. If girls in workrooms require protection, their sisters in the class-room require it still more.

Inspection of this sort should be carried on by medical men, under the authority of the Central Educational Board.

The examination of schools is desirable, and should be conducted by the older universities, who have experience and have done the work very well in the past. The local examinations have done excellent service in raising the general standard of education, but they may be, and are in some cases, abused, and the examination of individual pupils will never take the place of the examination of the school as a whole; moreover, the "set books," which are not always very well chosen, cramp the teaching.

There are two points to be kept in view, the preservation of individuality in the schools, and at the same time the establishment of some common standards for schools.

Inspection of the kind I have indicated should be compulsory on all schools, public or private.

Examination should be compulsory for public schools, a condition of registration for private schools.

Relation of elementary and secondary schools.

Section VI. Question 3.—Children should leave elementary for secondary schools at 10, or 11 at latest; nine is better. In my experience, children from elementary schools are up to, but rarely beyond, the level of their age in arithmetic and English grammar, they know little or nothing of history and geography, and nothing of French; a quick child of 10 will make up these subjects tolerably soon, but a child of 12 is at a great disadvantage, and is often thrown back a year in her English work by her deficiencies in French, &c. I know the headmistress of our grammar schools think 10 quite late enough for an elementary school child to come to them.

Training of teachers.

Section VII. Question 1.—(*a.*) I think the best system is for intending teachers to attend good lectures on the theory such as

those of Dr. Ward and Dr. Fitch. For the practice the teacher should join the staff of a good school for a year, for the first term taking little or no share in the teaching, but hearing lessons given by good teachers in different subjects, and different parts of the schools, then in the second and third terms she should take some share in the teaching, as well as go on attending the lessons given by other mistresses, her teaching being superintended by the headmistress. And I should like, if possible, to part the attendance at lectures after the year in a school for two reasons. First, because after a little experience one realises better one's own deficiencies, and the most important points in the subject; and, secondly, because I know that towards the end of one's college life, one begins to be impatient to escape for a time from the world of books to the world of persons. After a year of practical life one would come back with renewed zest to study. It was my own experience, and the experience of many with whom I have compared notes.

I do not approve of the practice gained in training colleges, where the teacher works under entirely artificial conditions. I find a very general impression exists, which agrees with my own, that with teachers from training colleges there is a sort of detachment from the children, the lessons sound excellent, but it is a lecture rather than a lesson; it lacks the flexibility, the adaptation to the particular class, which is the essence of good teaching; the teacher does too much, the children too little.

(*b.*) I do not consider the present system of training elementary teachers applicable to secondary teachers; but I do not know why the system I have indicated should not be applied to elementary teachers.

(*c.*) I think the lecturing on theory could not be placed in better hands than in those of the universities. (I mean by theory all the training given by lectures, not only on psychology, &c., but on practice, as in Dr. Fitch's lectures, Mr. Arthur Sidgwick's, &c., &c.)

Registration of teachers.

Section VII. Question 2.—I consider registration should be compulsory, no unregistered teachers being allowed to recover fees on being eligible for posts in endowed or State-aided schools. The register should include all *secondary* teachers, whether teachers in schools, teachers of special subjects, or tutors and governesses. Elementary teachers should not be on any account included in the register. It should be controlled by a council to be established for the purpose, provision being made for the absorption of this council by the Central Education Board, spoken of later on. The registration, and consequent organisation of teachers, should precede by several years any general legislation on Secondary Education; this I consider of vital importance to the interests of education.

If registration is not compulsory, teachers will not register, especially the better ones. And if elementary teachers are included, many other teachers will avoid the register, and the

status of the profession will be lowered. Further, the elementary teachers being already an organised body, and the secondary teachers as yet unorganised, the elementary teachers would swamp the others, not only in the election of representatives, which might be guarded against, but also in the consideration of any matters in which the joint action of the body of registered teachers was requisite.

Only registered teachers should be eligible for posts in endowed or State-aided schools, or in private schools for the grants I speak of under section X, question 4, and no unregistered teacher should be allowed to open a school.

All persons who have been engaged in teaching for a certain fixed period (say two years) before the passing of the Act shall be eligible for registration in the first instance. For future teachers a knowledge qualification should be required, and I should like to point out that the membership of the College of Preceptors is too low a standard, and that in Sir R. Temple's two Bills no notice is taken of the Cambridge Higher Local Examination, an excellent examination, and one much used by women. It would be desirable to require some proof of teaching power, but some provision should certainly be made for recognising indirect as well as direct proof of this—such as a good report from an examining body on the work of classes taught by the teacher in question. To insist on training would, I consider, be injurious.

The register should be classified, and a distinction should be drawn between the qualifications required from teachers in schools, teachers of special subjects, and private teachers.

District and central authorities.

Sections VIII and IX.—One very important question rises to my mind with regard to these sections: Is the parent to be allowed to choose to what school he will send his child? May a parent send his child to a rate-aided school out of his own rating district? Must the parent with a school close to him but in another rating district send his child as a boarder to some distant school in his own district? Must an inland parent whose child is ordered sea air pay a school rate, and the entire expense of his child's education? On the answer to the general question involved depends partly, to my mind, the relations of the different authorities.

Questions 2 and 3.—The authority should be one chosen *ad hoc*, and including a large proportion of representatives of the universities, and the registered body of teachers, with some representation of the rate-levying bodies, of local colleges and of local teachers.

To mix up Secondary and Elementary Education either by putting secondary schools under the control of the school boards, or by putting elementary teachers on the secondary register would be fatal to the interests of education. Any scheme for English education must take account of English prejudices, and if anything is done to give the impression that rate-aided

secondary schools are only a form of elementary schools. Many parents will have nothing to do with them, to the great injury of the schools as well as of the children thus kept away. It must always be remembered that a school depends on the material available in the way of pupils, as well as on to teaching, and that the presence of children from cultivated homes is of the greatest help to a school. Take a school of children from such homes, and introduce a small proportion of children from homes a little lower in the scale, and the levelling up will be most satisfactory; introduce too large a proportion of the less cultivated element, or draw from too low a stratum, and the children we want to raise will miss much of the gain we desire for them.

Further board-school teaching is, perhaps unavoidably, very mechanical. Children learn to work out rules admirably, but not to think for themselves. The board-school teachers are eager to emancipate themselves from bad methods, &c. Therefore it is essential to keep secondary and elementary teaching apart, that bad methods may not be imposed on secondary schools, and that we may have the opportunity of organising ourselves and then helping the elementary teachers.

Question 6.—It seems very desirable that *some* body should have the power of controlling elementary education, so as to prevent the abuses now seen of school boards keeping pupils to 16 or 17, preparing them for university examinations, and teaching such subjects as Greek and Latin.

IX. A central board seems essential to preserve a certain uniformity, provide for different claims, and prevent local prejudices from operating unfavourably.

Registration of schools.

X. Question 1.—I think private schools should be eligible for registration under the following conditions:—

(1.) They should pass the inspection mentioned in IV. I.
(2.) All the teachers employed should be registered.
(3.) They should pass a satisfactory examination annually.
(4.) They should prove that they have an effective conscience clause. Under these conditions they should be eligible for grants from the rates. I should like to point out that the principle of subsidising private schools out of public money was recognised by the Irish Intermediate Education Act of 1878, although the details of the Act are far from satisfactory.

Founding of new schools.

Question 4.—If rate-aided secondary schools are to be established, I think that in common justice arrangements must be made for compensating existing private schools. I think that proprietary schools should be taken over by the State, either by central or local authority, and that in the case of private schools three courses should be followed, (*a*) those heads who liked to follow the course suggested in the answer to the first question of this section, or to carry on their schools entirely at their own

risk, should be allowed to do so; (*b*) suitable teachers who wished it should be appointed to public schools; (*c*) those who did not wish to go or to come under Government control in any way should be compensated.

Higher grade elementary schools should be closed.

Directly schools at low fees, whether endowed or rate-aided, are opened in any place, the average parent expects to have the same education at the same fees in private schools in the district —so that the private teachers are starved and education starved too. If the State undertakes to undersell the market in the matter of education, it must be prepared to compensate the victims.

E. E. M. CREAK.

King Edward's High School for Girls,
Birmingham, June 12, 1894.

MR. J. G. KERR.

Preliminary remark:—I have practically no knowledge of English schools. My experience has been gained in (*a*) a Scotch parish school as a pupil, (*b*) a Scotch university as a student, (*c*) Balliol College, Oxford, as a Snell exhibitioner, (*d*) a Scotch training college for teachers as a lecturer for 12 years, and (*e*) a Scotch modern secondary and organised science school as headmaster.

I. 1 (*a*.)—Minimum age of entrants should be 17. Universities

One constantly meets with boys who could with a little trouble be got to pass stiff entrance examinations under 17. There are few of these for whom the discipline of the university is so well suited as that of a good secondary school.

(*b*.)—Maximum age of competitors for open entrance scholarships should be 18, or at the outside 18½.

Secondary schools should not be encouraged to retain boys over 18, and certainly not for the purpose of preparing them for scholarship competitions. The preparation of special boys for scholarship examinations interferes with the idea of a school.

3.—Yes. More science students might be attracted to the universities if—

(α) Greek were not compulsory,

(β) scholarships involving science subjects were increased in number,

(γ) better provisions were made for instruction and research.

There have been established over Britain "organised science schools." In these schools and in other secondary schools of the modern type the curriculum is such that even most capable pupils are practically debarred from the universities. Without committing myself, in the meantime, to any opinion as to the disciplinary value of a curriculum which does not insist very

strongly on Latin and disregards Greek, I would be glad to see such a modification of entrance conditions as would make it possible for *really able pupils* from these schools to get the advantages of university life and training.

Secondary schools and their arrangements.

II. 1 and 2.—I am not prepared to speak firmly here.

The Allan Glen School is a day school for boys. Our pupils are mainly from elementary schools. The most suitable age for entrance is between 12 and 13. Pupils joining after 14 take some time in growing into the school and usually are not easily placed. My experience points, therefore, to the advisability of having a strong preparatory school for pupils from, say, 11½ to 13½, and a secondary school in direct connexion with it.

3.—Yes.

4.—Competitive scholarships in which age is considered, impressing the public that Secondary Education means a scheme or schemes of education designed for pupils from the age of 12 to 17.

5.—There should be no distinctively technical department in a secondary school.

I am assuming that the question does not refer to the part which may be played by chemistry, physics, manual instruction, mathematics and drawing, for these subjects, although involving "the principles underlying trades and industries," appear in a secondary school curriculum in virtue of their high disciplinary value. No doubt each new subject tends to displace an older subject, and accordingly secondary schools will differ from one another in the extent to which they use the older or the newer subjects, and in the manner in which the several subjects are distributed. In a city it is advisable to have some secondary schools giving culture mainly through classics and literature, and also some secondary schools in which more regard is paid to the training that may be had in physical and mathematical science.

Distinctively technical instruction, as I take it, comes after Secondary Education, and should be given in separate schools or colleges.

6.—When apprenticeship begins, and it should be arranged either to supplement apprenticeship, or, if possible, to replace it to some degree.

7.—Improve the staff of the ordinary school, and form an upper department. Where it is possible, one school should be selected as a centre to which senior pupils from small schools might go.

Leaving examination.

III. 1.—Yes.

2.—The Education Department.

3.

4. As the leaving examination would be an examination in attainments, it should be conducted somewhat on the lines of

the Science and Art Department's Examination. All candidates should be required to pass in certain prescribed subjects and in certain optional subjects.

5.

Inspection and examination.

IV. 1. (*a.*)—Endowed or public schools should be inspected by experts appointed by the Education Department. Examination beyond that involved in III. is not needed.

(*b.*)—Pupils attending proprietary and private schools should be permitted to sit for leaving certificates provided that their schools have accepted inspection.

Relation of elementary and secondary schools.

VI. (2.)—There is no reason why the effect of Science and Art grants should be unsatisfactory. No doubt if the financial arrangements of the school encourage the pressing Science and Art subjects to the disadvantage of general training the effect is likely to be bad. The teachers should have no pecuniary interest in the results, and the school should have a carefully considered curriculum.

Training of teachers.

VII. 1.—The best teachers I have known have been university men, who had served an apprenticeship in good schools under capable headmasters.

(*a.*)—(*α.*) An apprenticeship of at least two years beginning not earlier than at the age of 16. During this period there would be a course of supervised study.

(*β.*) A university training.

(*γ.*) A training college experience in the using of subjects for the purposes of education.

(*b.*)—Many teachers in secondary schools in Scotland have been teachers in "elementary" schools, and I see no great objection to arranging a system applicable to any schools. At the same time it would be a loss to exclude from teaching able men who had not served an apprenticeship, and I would suggest that graduates who underwent a course of training as indicated in (*γ*), and who thereafter gave evidence of fitness to conduct classes might be recognised as teachers.

(*c.*)—The universities might provide courses of lectures on education, or perhaps establish a faculty of education, and grant a degree with special reference to teaching, practical experience being got in training colleges, or specially recognised schools.

Registration of teachers.

2. Registration might be as follows:—The Education Department at present trains, certificates, and, therefore, registers teachers. Let the Education Department place also upon a register the names of those satisfying conditions involved in I., the universities consequently accepting in this matter some degree of departmental consideration and direction. A national scheme of education would naturally require that teachers in examined and inspected schools should have a formal qualification, and the Department's register might contain statements of the grounds on which the several enrolments were made.

REV. M. G. GLAZEBROOK.

Universities.

I. 1 (*a.*)—In my opinion, boys ought to enter the university before the age of 19, but not before the age of 18.

(*b.*)—The same rule ought to apply to all boys. Consequently the present irrational system ought to be given up. Colleges advertise that boys must be under 19 on the day of election, and as that day is now sometimes fixed early in October, a year before the boys are to commence residence, the successful candidate may be nearly 20 before he commences his university life. I would advocate a change in the rule, so that, no matter when the election is held, the candidates must be under 19 on the following 1st of September.

At the same time, it is desirable not to examine the boys too young. There should be a "close time" for scholars from July till about the middle of February, for the sake of the boys themselves, of the schools, and of the electing colleges. (But I forbear to give the numerous reasons for this statement.)

I. 2.—I think that on the whole, the Joint Board examination has been a success. It has supplied something like a regular standard, and it has provided fairly reliable examiners, and it has stimulated the work of the inferior schools.

The best part of the examination is naturally in the subjects which are regularly taught at the universities to boys about on a level with a sixth form. The classical papers are almost always good, and the marking judicious. The mathematical papers are also good though the standard is rather low.

In other subjects, this examination is less satisfactory. The Scripture and English literature papers are rarely satisfactory, and the examiners who look over the answers rarely know the subject. The history papers are apt to be suited to young men rather than boys. The marking of the science papers is so erratic that the best boy rarely comes out first. And the French and German examination is a complete failure, because the standard is absurdly low.

I. 3.—I believe that if the universities would give up the mockery of pass Greek, and make a reality of their Latin pass examination, they would attract more science students and better trained.

Secondary schools and their arrangements.

II. 1.—Competition is gradually bringing a large number of boarding preparatory schools to a high state of efficiency. I do not think anything would be gained by State interference with them.

On the other hand, the preparatory day schools are, as a rule, very bad. The fees are so small, that without large numbers efficiency is impossible, and competition prevents their numbers from being large. The result is demoralisation in the teachers and ignorance in their pupils.

It appears to me that every large day school ought to have one or more preparatory day schools attached to it, and under the control of the headmaster.

II. 2.—Nearly all the large day schools have what is called a modern or commercial side, which is practically a second grade school. With some modifications, the modern side, which already exist, might be made very satisfactory. There is a considerable advantage, in regard both of efficiency and of economy, in their being under the same management and in the same building with the classical schools. Masters get a wider view of boys and their needs: the "commercial" type of boy is educated by association with the more intellectual, and transfers from one branch to another are made easy.

II. 3.—The system of competitive entrance scholarships is in urgent need of reform. I am not at all sure that it is not now doing more harm than good. The abuses are of two different kinds as affecting day schools and boarding schools; and it has been my fortune to have a considerable experience of both.

The worst abuses belong to the scholarships at boarding schools. The object of those who first founded such scholarships was to enable poor and promising boys to obtain a good education. But that aim is rarely kept in view. The schools, having realised that the presence of clever boys raises the intellectual standard and enables them to score successes at the university and elsewhere, use their scholarship funds quite cynically as a means of buying clever boys for their own purposes. As it matters little to them whether these clever boys' parents are rich or poor they generally ask no questions. And parents on their side have rarely any scruple in accepting money of which they have no need. I can remember many scholars at Harrow, where I was an assistant master, whose fathers were very rich men. And even the poorest were so well off that unaided they could have sent their boys to less fashionable schools of good repute: for the scholarships only paid the difference between the cost of the dearer and the cheaper schools of the same intellectual rank. Why should public money be spent to enable (say) a well-to-do county clergyman to send his boy to mix with others so much richer than himself that their habits and standards of expense are a bad example for him?

Poverty is cut out at every stage. The standard of the entrance examinations is such that few boys stand a chance of success who have not been trained at an expensive preparatory school. Parents with an instinct for business recognise this. I know a man whose income is some 2,000*l.* a year who sent all his six sons to a first-rate trainer of two-year-old colts, at a great expense, and was repaid by having every one of them provided with handsome scholarships at various public schools. Such a man is hardly an object for charity; and yet he was pleased and proud of his successful investment.

If parents are demoralised, so are boys. They are hawked about from school to school, and early come to think of themselves as articles of commerce. A boy whose grandfather is little short of a millionaire entered for our scholarships at Clifton. He came to breakfast with me, and unconsciously revealed his attitude of mind, as he told me where he had tried before and where he was to try next. Still, he was a nice boy and promising; so although he was below the scholarship line, I offered to admit him with an honorary exhibition of 5*l*. His mother wrote that she greatly wished him to come to Clifton, but she had made up her mind that he must have a scholarship: so he went on to the next school on his list, where he was elected.

The influence of the system upon the preparatory schools is also injurious. Some of the best have the courage to refuse the arts of the trainer and grow their boys humanly and freely. But there are others who sacrifice everything to success—the health, the character, and the intellect of their clever pupils, and the instruction of the dull ones; for every scholarship gained is an advertisement, second only in the eyes of parents to the maintenance of a cricket professional.

The son of a poor country clergyman, for instance, taught at the local grammar school, may be tenth on the list, and ineligible if there are only four or five scholarships. Yet it may very well be that if elected, he would soon beat the others.

If it be asked why the public schools do not drop this dreadful system, the answer is much like the answer to the question about European disarmament. Who is to run the risk of beginning, when it means a dangerous mark of ability? We need a *Deus ex machinâ* to save us from each other.

I should recommend an extension of a system which is at work at Clifton with pretty good results. I would limit the value of all scholarships to (say) 10*l*. a year; but make very substantial addition in cases where poverty was proved. By that means the scholarships could be so much increased in number as to give a chance to the really able but ill-trained sons of poor men.

The entrance scholarships at the day schools are not so much misused, but they fail to effect their object largely because they are so often awarded to boys of the wrong kind. The causes are various. Many such scholarships are awarded by school boards on the result of an examination conducted on the lines of elementary teaching. Consequently they fall, not to boys who show promise for the future, but to those who are tolerably perfect in the mechanical arts of writing, arithmetic, and what is called English grammar. Even if the examination is conducted by the teachers in the secondary school, it is apt to fail because the numbers of the candidates make it difficult to test them *vivâ voce*, and paper work does not discrimate boys in that stage.

Another most serious obstacle is the difficulty of getting the boys young enough. The tendency of parents, elementary schoolmasters, and business men is to think that the time for transfer to a secondary school is the age of 14, when they have exhausted the possibilities of the primary school. That is a very serious mistake. What the higher school wants is promising raw material, and the finished product of the elementary school is much too complete to take a fresh set of impressions. For Secondary Education the years between 12 and 14 are all important. Nothing can make up for the loss of them.

The result of these mistakes is that a large number of boys are elected to scholarships at the grammar schools who would be much better employed in perfecting their elementary course at a higher grade board school. In a year or two they find out their mistake, and leave to become errand boys, having gained little or nothing by a brief and belated introduction to French grammar, and having in return somewhat lowered the intellectual tone of the school by their obstinate indifference to literature.

II. 4.—Only one thing is really needed. It is that all teachers in schools of all grades should feel it a duty to send on boys who can profit by teaching of a higher kind. Their tendency, naturally enough, is rather to keep the promising boys in their own schools, giving them such irregular and inefficient higher teaching as their knowledge and leisure allow, until it is too late for them to profit by the change. This is a fault in teachers of all classes; but it is, perhaps, most characteristic of masters in the elementary schools.

The money and machinery would soon be found if there were hearty and intelligent effort on the part of the teachers.

II. 5.—Technical instruction is so utterly different in its aims and methods from education, either literary or scientific, that I can hardly imagine any headmaster qualified to organise both; and the attitude of minds of the two kinds of pupils make them very unfit to be yoked together.

Inspection and examination.

IV.—Inspection seems to me both desirable and practicable. After spending four or five days at a school, taking classes in different subjects, hearing a few lessons, observing the discipline and methods, watching the boys' games and outdoor manners, a competent man could make a most valuable report; and since inspection, unlike examination, can be held at any time in a turn, one inspector could take charge of 30 or 40 schools. His appointment should be in the hands of the Central Educational Board.

But I almost despair of a system of examination, because of the difficulty of finding competent examiners in sufficient number. Examining is dreary work; and the good teachers, who alone can make good examiners, naturally prefer to be teaching I know by sad experience how hard it is to find tolerable examiners for the middle part of a school, and how the

bad ones do more harm by their ignorant praise than by their equally ignorant blame. The only chance of success would be by a system of exchanges between schools. For instance, each of two schools might send its chief modern language master to examine in the other. But it would be a delicate operation.

Granted that schools are to be inspected, what schools are to come within the sphere of the inspector?

(*a.*)—I am inclined to draw a distinction between day schools and boarding schools.

In the case of the former parents have practically no choice. They must send their boys to the nearest school. They have, therefore, a claim to be assured by some independent authority that the school is in a satisfactory state. All day schools will, I hope, receive subsidies from the rates; the ratepayers, therefore, will have a right to inquire whether their money is being spent to good purpose and for the right objects. Moreover, intelligent inspection would be a great help to many headmasters, whose greatest difficulties arise from the ignorant criticism of prejudiced parents.

Boarding schools stand on a different footing. Their *clientèle* is not local. Parents send boys to them from all parts of England by their own free choice, and because they have confidence in them as they are. The free competition between them is a stronger spur than inspection could be. They will not, I imagine, receive any State aid; and in most cases their private endowments are insignificant.

Some schools are partially boarding and partly day schools. But it is generally easy to see that one of the two elements is predominant and determines the character of the whole, so that there would be little difficulty about the classification.

(*b.*)—I think that proprietary and private schools ought to have the right to ask for inspection. It will practically be forced upon most of them by the fear of rate-aided schools being established in their neighbourhood unless they can produce a certificate of efficiency. But some rules will have to be made about the minimum size which shall entitle a school to recognition.

Relation of elementary and secondary schools.

VI.—The scope of this section is so much wider than that of the three questions which are assigned to it, and the subject is of such great importance, that I hope I shall not be transgressing if I treat it in my own way.

I shall not speak of the country districts, of which I have no experience, but of the large towns, especially those in the north of England. Few people have any conception of the educational destitution which prevails in Lancashire and Yorkshire. Manchester, for example, with its girdle of small towns, which vary in size from 50,000 to 200,000 inhabitants, represents a population of several millions. Let me state briefly what is the provision for their education. In Manchester itself there is

Owens College, the Grammar School, and the Hulme School. The first of these institutions admits boys at 16, so that it may count as in part a secondary school. The Grammar School is an efficient first-grade school, numbering about 800 boys; the Hulme School is a successful second-grade school on a smaller scale. That would be a poor provision for Manchester and Salford alone, with their population of 600,000. But not more than two-thirds of the boys in those schools come from Manchester and Salford; the rest come in by train from Oldham, and Bolton, and Rochdale, and Bury, and a score of outlying towns. I have even known boys come daily from Fleetwood (40 miles) and Huddersfield (35 miles). The reason is that in these towns there are no efficient schools. In some, like Oldham, with its 200,000 inhabitants, there has hitherto* been no secondary school at all. In others, there are small grammar schools, which produce such miserable results, that all parents who desire any solid teaching are obliged to send their boys into Manchester. Out of a population of five or six millions, that is, some 1,200 boys are enjoying an efficient secondary education.

If that were a district in Germany, there would be at least one good school for every 100,000 inhabitants, supported largely by rates, the parents only paying about 3*l.* a year. No private enterprise can bridge the gulf between ourselves and Germany. Private enterprise can meet a want, but cannot create a desire, or supply teaching at less than cost price. The mass of the people do not believe in education beyond the board school level. Even the minority who do desire it are unable to pay for it. It is impossible to reduce the cost of tolerably good teaching, even to large numbers, below about 15*l.* per head; and 5*l.* or 6*l.* is the limit beyond which even the more ambitious part of the lower middle class cannot or will not go. Those of them who care about the matter complain that they are taxed to pay for the elementary schools and yet no provision is made for them. Yet a two-penny rate applied to Secondary Education would transform the face of Lancashire in 20 years. Then there might be a good school within reach of all; education would not be weighted with the exhausting waste of time, money, and strength, which is involved in daily railway journeys for growing boys; and the transition from the elementary to the secondary school, instead of an adventurous voyage only risked by the few, would be a natural and ordinary excursion.

In order to realise the conditions of the problem it will, I think, be useful briefly to set down a few commonplace facts. There can be nothing in them which is new to the Commissioners; but it may be news to them that there are large areas in England where these commonplaces are regarded as absurd paradoxes—or would be so regarded if they had ever been mentioned at all.

* I believe one is now being started.

(*a.*)—There is a radical difference between the methods of elementary and secondary teaching. The former trains a boy to accept and retain knowledge which is put into his mouth; the latter trains him to acquire knowledge for himself. The boy who, accustomed to the intellectual spoon-feeding of the board school, finds himself at a grammar school expected to read two or three pages of history at home and to remember something about them, suffers something like a mental revolution; and a revolution that comes too late is merely destructive.

(*b.*)—There is a distinction of equal importance between Secondary Education and technical instruction. While the latter aims at developing a semi-mechanical faculty, the former aspires to give moral and intellectual training, partly by means of studies, partly through discipline. This is a difference which the average parent of the lower middle class has not begun to realise, and which is very insufficiently appreciated by teachers and governing bodies.

(*c.*)—Although it is quite possible to teach boys of all intellectual sorts together in an elementary school up to the age of about 12, it is a ruinous mistake to combine them any longer. By the time a boy is 12 it ought to be settled whether he is—

(1.) To earn his living at 13 or 14 as a mechanic or errand boy; or,

(2.) To have a technical training at the higher grade board school; or,

(3.) To be educated for medium commercial or professional life on the modern side of a secondary school; or,

(4.) To have a first-grade education with a view to a profession or to the university.

In case (1) he will remain at the elementary school. In case (2) he will remain at the elementary school for a short time, and then proceed to the higher grade school. In cases (3) and (4) he will go to the grammar school; and if the organisation is good it need not be decided for a year or two which is to be his line, for he will simply lay the foundation of a more or less liberal education.

At present these issues are confused by the desire of most educational institutions to invade their neighbours' territory. The board schools poach upon Secondary Education, the secondary schools upon the technical training, and the technical schools upon both the others. All such overlapping is bad in two ways. It causes mischievous jealousies, and it produces a great deal of thoroughly bad teaching. But if these clouds were dispersed, parents would have some chance of seeing what was meant by the selection of one course or the other; and we should not find promising "scholars" being spoiled at a higher grade school, nor future errand boys wasting their time on the classical side of a grammar school.

(*d.*)—The mere power to acquire knowledge is not the real test of a boy's fitness for a higher education. In many cases

this faculty is only a variety of the commercial instinct, diverted to marks and prizes instead of bargains. If such a boy is encouraged by scholarships and the social ambition of unwise parents to go to the university, he finds himself in the end unfit for any useful work. His brain is loaded with knowledge which he does not value for itself, and which, owing to his disposition and antecedents, he cannot employ with success in the higher professions. So he merely swells the ranks of an aimless, discontented, educated proletariate.

(*e.*) It follows, from the above considerations, that one of the most responsible functions in the educational system of a large town is the task of sifting boys at the age of 11 or 12, and distributing them into their right categories. The disasters which at present result from the absence of any real guidance, not only injure individual boys, but discredit all higher education in the eyes of large classes of parents.

(*f.*) No one who has seen the working of the system will imagine that a vital connexion between elementary and secondary schools can be effected by a lavish distribution of scholarships. They do not catch the right boys, and their existence in large numbers encourages the idea that it is not worth any boy's while to go to a higher school unless he is paid for it. The obvious need is to attract in large numbers the sons of the lower middle class, who require education to fit them for their work, but are not clever enough to deserve special rewards. That can only be done by lowering the fees, and by making the parents feel that in any case they pay something in rates.

Bearing these facts in mind, I would suggest that for every 100,000 inhabitants there should be provided the following means of Secondary Education:—

1. A first-grade school, taking boys from 12 to 19 years of age. The lowest forms should be taught Latin, French, English, and mathematics. A little higher there should be a division into classical and modern. The classical would begin with Greek, the modern increase the French and English and perhaps drop the Latin. Both sides at this stage would do a little science. The modern sides would aim at turning out the average boy at 16 in something like a definite shape, fit for commercial life; but it would provide higher classes, in which the abler boys could get a really liberal education in modern literature and science. So long as the requirements of the universities remain the same, the upper part of the classical side would proceed much as at present, only it should be more elastic—and it should be small.

2. One or two preparatory schools to prepare for the first grade school the boys of such parents as are willing to pay for a better training than the board school affords. It is absolutely necessary that these should be under the control of the head-master of the first-grade school. The reasons for that are partly given in my answer to II. 1. I may add that the master of a small independent preparatory school is a slave to the

prejudices of individual parents whom he dares not offend. The results are quite astonishing. I once examined for entrance to the Manchester Grammar School two boys of about 14 and of average intelligence, who had been for six years at one of the larger private schools in the neighbourhood, and was obliged to reject them because they could not read. It is only by connexion with a strong central school that a preparatory can be independent enough to insist on doing some real teaching. These schools might charge such fees as would make them self-supporting.

3. A higher grade elementary school to train boys for the lower kind of clerkship and for minor service in scientific or engineering works. This can be done by such a school much better than by a grammar school. Boys with these aims need to be carefully trained in handwriting, arithmetic, and elementary science in its practical applications. Neither they nor their parents desire literature, discipline, or theoretical science. Two reforms are required in the higher grade schools. They should not pretend to teach languages, as some of them do; and they should not destroy the intelligence of their cleverer pupils by using them as grant earning machines in the South Kensington examinations. Those examinations are, in my judgment, having a disastrous effect upon the country, by encouraging teachers and pupils alike to substitute a parrot-like knowledge of small text-books for a practical knowledge of facts and relations. The sooner those grants are abolished the better for education; I speak of the science grants. The art examinations are much better, for they at least test the pupil's power of doing a given thing in a given time and with his own fingers.

4. A technical school for training in the methods of actual trades. Here, again, we need a caution against undue expansion. Some technical schools try to start classes in literature and art, to the detriment of both.

5. A system of scholarships, on a somewhat new plan, so as really to meet the needs of the comparatively few sons of very poor parents whose abilities justify their having a prolonged education. These scholarships should exceed the fees by at least 10*l.* a year, so as to provide books and dinners. For without dinners the books and the teaching are a snare.

6. A committee, including the school inspectors and some teachers, to advise parents of boys in elementary schools when to send them on, and to what kind of school. This committee should include the best teachers of all grades in the district; for upon its earnestness, clearheadedness, and personal weight, the lives of many hundreds of children are likely to depend.

7. An ideal of what the average boy, who is to go into "business," should be at the age of 16 or so when he leaves school. The chaos of our existing arrangements is largely due to the absence of any definite aim on the part of parents, boys, masters, and employers.

IX. (*a.*)—I think that a strong central board will be needed for various purposes. Central Educational Board.

(*b.*)—Its functions would be:—

To know all the facts about the distribution of Secondary Education, the needs of special districts, and so forth.

To advise all local bodies which ask for information or suggestions.

To survey the country and point out educational deficiencies to the local authorities.

To revise all schemes presented by the local authorities.

To veto proposals which their knowledge assures them to be unpractical, or to involve encroachments upon the functions of other educational bodies.

To be prepared personally or by deputy to visit localities where important changes are in contemplation.

(*c.*)—About this I do not feel competent to answer.

(*d.*)—Unless the business of visiting were to make heavy demands, the board need not be a large one; but it must be very strong and representative of various interests and forms of experience. It is absolutely essential that it should include some secondary teachers of eminence. I would suggest as a nucleus which might be increased—

One master from a great boarding school.

One master from a great day school.

One member of the Charity Commission.

One elementary teacher or head of a training college who is also a graduate of Oxford or Cambridge.

One county councillor who has been concerned in organizing education—if possible, a member of Parliament.

They must all be men who are fresh from work, not retired, for antiquated experience is of little value, and may be positively mischievous. They must not hold their posts after the age of 60, or they will be out of touch with new developments. Consequently they will have to be well paid.

(*e.*)—I think that the principal restriction should be a rule against the use of "common form" schemes—in fact, against issuing schemes at all. They should be an advising, helpful, and occasionally vetoing board; but not have power (at any rate, at first) to compel the adoption of particular methods.

M. G. Glazebrook,
Clifton College.

Mr. H. COURTHOPE BOWEN.

III. A satisfactory leaving examination is an undoubted necessity for schools; but seeing that many such examinations Leaving examination.

already exist and are generally accepted as satisfactory, there is not, in my opinion, any real necessity for the establishment of another—even though all of those which now exist are capable of improvement. The generally accepted leaving examinations to which I refer are:—The higher certificate examination of the Oxford and Cambridge Joint Board for the examination of schools, the Cambridge higher local examination, the higher certificate examinations of the College of Preceptors, the matriculation examination of the University of London, &c., &c. Such examinations to be generally acceptable must be conducted by authoritative bodies in which the public have confidence—that is, by the universities or a duly chartered body of experienced teachers, such as the College of Preceptors.

Besides the advantage to parents of a guarantee that their sons and daughters have reached a certain standard of education, the advantage which leaving certificates should carry should be admission without further examination into institutions of more advanced or more specialised education. This may be illustrated from the examinations mentioned above. For instance, the higher certificates of the Oxford and Cambridge Joint Board, under certain conditions, exempt the holders of them from Responsions at Oxford, the Previous Examination at Cambridge, and several other examinations. The higher certificates of the College of Preceptors are recognised by Her Majesty's Judges and by the General Medical Council as guarantees of good general education; and consequently the holders of them who may be intended for the legal and medical professions are exempted from the necessity of submitting to the preliminary literary examinations held by the Incorporated Law Society and by the various medical corporations of the United Kingdom. These certificates, if they include Latin, are also recognised by the Pharmaceutical Society of Great Britain. In fact, a leaving certificate should carry with it a guarantee that the general education so far received has been satisfactory and adequate—a guarantee which is absolutely necessary before any specialised work can safely be begun.

That the standard of each leaving certificate should be steadily and temperately maintained, or at least never changed without adequate notice, is, of course, the prime condition for its general acceptance; but I do not see what would be gained—while I do see how much would be lost—by making the standard the same for all certificates, and reducing all the examinations to one stereotyped form. To state only a few reasons: the uses to which the certificates are put must always vary very considerably; while to make all the examinations of one stereotyped pattern would force our schools into one stereotyped uniformity—a result which would be deeply deplored by every thoughtful and experienced teacher. Moreover, of necessity different standards must in any case be adopted for schools of different grades and different purposes. And further, even in the same school it will

never be possible to bring all the pupils to the same standard of efficiency, unless the standard adopted be a comparatively low one. For these and other reasons I consider that what is needed is variety rather than uniformity in leaving examinations.

Both as a schoolmaster and as an examiner I have had considerable experience in connexion with the school examinations of the universities of Oxford and Cambridge. I consider that, on the whole, these examinations are conducted well and to the very great benefit of those who make use of them. In particular I should like to refer to the plan of the higher certificate examination of the Oxford and Cambridge Joint Board, as it seems to me the best plan for a leaving examination. All the possible subjects of a school curriculum are arranged in four groups. To obtain a certificate a candidate must satisfy the examiners in at least four subjects, taken from not less than three different groups; and no candidate may take up more than six subjects. Without pledging myself to the particular groups or to the particular number of subjects required, I think that such a plan helps to check over-specialisation, and at the same time allows the school a sufficient latitude of choice. To preserve a stability of standard, special "awarders" are appointed for each group of subjects, whose business it is to ensure that the right standard for each group is duly maintained.

Inspection and examination.

IV. It seems to me beyond all questions that the public, that is, parents, have a right to require from every school to which they send their children a definite and easily recognised guarantee of the school's efficiency; or, inasmuch as parents are not educational experts, they should be able to obtain such information as, with the help of an expert, will enable them to form a sound judgment in the matter. For this purpose the following things are needful:—(*a.*) The school should be subject to sanitary inspection at certain intervals by public authorities; and the sanitary report should be obtainable on application. (*b.*) The teachers on the staff should be registered—which ought to mean, before long, that they are trained. Meanwhile, at any rate, the school should publish a statement as to the professional qualifications and general attainments of the teachers on its staff. (*c.*) The school should be examined from time to time by some authoritative body, such as the universities, the College of Preceptors, &c., and the report should be published, provided that the governing body of the school have the power to withhold for a while during further inquiries any report which in their opinion would seriously damage the school. (*d.*) The school should publish full information on the following points: subjects taught, time devoted to each subject, number of pupils in each class, size and arrangement of class-rooms laboratories and plant, playgrounds, and the actual cost of the school to the parent.

All this information should be sent to the Central Educational Board hereafter referred to, and be obtainable from that board on

application; and the information should be renewed at certain intervals, say, at least, once in three years. This information, I consider quite sufficient to enable any teacher of experience to form, for the benefit of a parent, a sound judgment on a school's efficiency; and the giving of this information would not unduly interfere with that amount of freedom which is absolutely necessary for the healthy life of a school.

If by inspection (other than sanitary) is meant no more than *vivâ voce* or oral examination and the checking from time to time of the accuracy of the information above described, then I consider that both inspection and examination are desirable, and indeed necessary. In many subjects oral examination is as a rule more suitable to the younger pupils than written work. The checking of the accuracy of the information supplied would best be done under the direction of the Central Educational Board; but all the rest of the work should be done by the authoritative examining bodies above mentioned.

The schools to which I refer in what I have said are all endowed schools and secondary schools in receipt of public money; and also all such proprietary and private schools as desire to be considered "efficient" for purposes of public scholarships, or simply desire to give the public a reliable guarantee.

Training of teachers.

VII. Whatever be the particular system adopted, no training can ever, in my opinion, be satisfactory which is not given in an institution or department adequately equipped and solely devoted to the purpose of training—that is to say, in a training college, or in a training department of a university college, or in a post-graduate department of a university. I hold also that the absolutely necessary pre-requisite for training is the possession of a sound general education. No specialisation is properly sound and fruitful unless it is so preceded; and the attempt to give training and general education together must inevitably be to the detriment of both. If those who intend to teach in elementary schools can give satisfactory evidence of a sound general education, and can afford to devote the whole of their time to professional training—this is not the case at present—I can see no solid reason why they, and those who are to be teachers in secondary schools should not be trained together. *Quâ* teachers pure and simple the work they will have to do is the same; though, of course, the secondary schools will make higher demands as regards knowledge of school subjects. I may add, however, that from such evidence as we at present possess almost wholly as regards women—the progress of the more highly educated student—especially in what forms the scientific basis of teaching—is much more rapid and sure than that of one imperfectly educated. It might, therefore, prove a task of some difficulty to keep the classes working together. Experience so far gained has shown that a student who possesses a sound general education and can give up the whole of his or her time to

professional training, must devote at least one year to that training if any really satisfactory result is to be obtained.

After many years experience in connection with training and a careful study of the subject, I am of the opinion that the work of a training college or department should consist of the following:—

A. (1.) The study of the activities and growth of mind, or practical psychology—with all such personal observations of children by the students as can be provided. (2.) The application of this psychology to actual school-work with examples and with exercises for the students. (3.) Notes of lessons intended for particular classes of the practising school or schools sketched by the students and discussed with them by the trainer. Some of these lessons to be given *under supervision*, and the giving of them discussed either with the giver alone or before all the students. In the latter part of the course, lessons can be given under supervision somewhat less close, and without previous discussion. But supervision of some kind there must always be. (4.) Model lessons given before the students by expert teachers. (5.) Visits to schools.

B. The history of educational ideas and practice—with special study of the principles and methods of the greater educational reformers.

C. (1.) School management: the structure and furniture of schools, lighting, ventilation, general school routine, &c., &c. (2.) Physical education or elementary physiology and hygiene, with some study of the best systems of gymnastics.

D. The study of elementary logic and ethics, as far as these bear on the work of teaching.

There are some who hold that a training college need not have a practising school of its own. I do not agree with this. I hold that a college should have its own school, (*a*) for the close and continuous observation of children by the students, and for the cultivation of personal relations between teachers and children; (*b*) for the giving of model lessons, and special series of lessons, when all the students must be present; (*c*) for the practice of the less efficient students who cannot be sent to external schools, and who need very special supervision and guidance if the children are not to suffer; and (*d*) for criticism lessons. External schools cannot allow themselves to be overrun by students or practised upon by those who at first are very inefficient. On the other hand, no single practising school can ever be sufficient for a college. It would not give variety enough. Besides its own school the college should have other schools to which it can send its students for practice; and these schools should be as varied as possible. The universities should

take part in the work (as Cambridge and London already do) by examining the students in the theory, history, and practice of education and in practical efficiency in teaching. They might also establish post-graduate departments for the training of teachers.

If, as in Germany, every trained teacher were required to give proof of two years of satisfactory probation before being finally and fully certificated the gain would be great.

Central Educational Board.

IX. From what I have said under IV. *Inspection and Examination*, it will have been seen that I consider a Central Educational Board or Council an absolute necessity. It is needed, not only for the duties I have described under that section, but also for the following: to give the final decision as to the efficiency of the local supply of schools, to revise and sanction school schemes, and to prevent unfair and factious treatment of endowed and private schools, and any persecution, political, social, or religious. However otherwise composed, such a Board or Council should include among its members an adequate number of persons of educational skill and experience. But the composition which seems to me best is that which I have mentioned for the registration council—which composition was recommended for the registration council by the Select Committee (of 1891) on the registration of teachers. It is possible, however, that some small part of the work I have indicated might have to be reserved solely for the nominees of the Crown. Were this mode of composition adopted for the Central Educational Council or Board, this Council or Board might also be given the charge of registration, but otherwise not. Teachers are anxious to form themselves into a learned liberal profession, on much the same general lines as doctors and lawyers, and the vast majority would be strongly opposed to placing all that concerns the regulation of their professional qualifications completely under the control of the State. We wish to be, not a body of State officials, but the members of a liberal profession—to fully the same extent as doctors. If the formation of a separate registration council were strongly objected to, another alternative seems possible to me—that a committee solely for registration purposes should be constituted, consisting of a certain number of the members of the Central Educational Board, augmented by representatives of the universities and members elected by registered teachers. But on the whole, I believe that a separate registrtaion council would be more generally acceptable.

I am not able to see what would be the benefit to *Secondary* Education of a Minister of Education—unless it be at the same time proposed to place Secondary Education completely or mainly under the control of the State. To such a proposal, I—in common with almost every secondary teacher—am strongly opposed, even were the Minister's powers as regards Secondary Education very limited at first, the inevitable tendency would be to steadily increase those powers. For this reason, I am of

opinion that the Central Educational Board should exercise its functions without a Minister.

The local authorities should, I think, elect local school committees for the special work to be assigned to them, and not add this work to that or other bodies already elected for other purposes. On these local school committees, there should be an adequate number of persons of educational skill and experience. These committees should draft the schemes to be afterwards revised and sanctioned by the Central Council, or they might, if they so wished, apply to the Central Council to draft the schemes for them. They should have right of appeal to the Privy Council in case of any serious disagreement with the Central Educational Council as to schemes. And the Central Educational Council should have the right to require local school committees to show cause before the Privy Council why scheme as drafted and sanctioned should not be carried out. The local committees should, I think, have the power, if all parties interested consented and so desired, to take over at market value any efficient private school, and should have powers like those under the Elementary Education Act, regarding the compulsory purchase of sites. In other respects these committees should perform the ordinary functions of the governing bodies of schools.

I do not think that the functions I have proposed for the Central Council or Board would unduly interfere with the independence of the local authorities or with the healthy necessary variety of schools.

Mr. E. LLOYD JONES.

I.—(2.) The only university examinations by which my school has been tested are those of the Cambridge University. The whole school was only examined once, for the reason that the report did not seem to me to be a fair one, though I am bound to admit that I believe this to have arisen from a misapprehension of the character of the school and its work, the tabulated results sent me in no degree representing the true attainments *or* relative position of the boys. My opinion was confirmed by an almost simultaneous issue of a detailed report of the work of the same pupils, issued by the Local Examination Syndicate, in which the results were quite satisfactory. Universities.

In the hands of competent examiners, who know the capabilities of young boys, and who have a certain amount of sympathy with them, it is my belief that the examination of schools by the universities would work satisfactorily. Of the local examinations and those of the College of Preceptors, I cannot speak too highly. They are in my opinion admirably suited to their purpose.

Secondary schools and their arrangements.

II.—(1.) I should scarcely think it necessary to provide public preparatory schools where efficient teaching of the required kind is already within the reach of a community.

(2.) It appears to me that a lower secondary school should be within easy distance of every higher secondary school in order to meet the requirements of younger boys coming from the same family.

Lower school headmasters should be independent.

As to "management," if by that is meant headmastership, unquestionably they should be under separate rule. The master of a lower secondary school should feel himself quite free from all outside control as to the management of his classes, though he would, of course, consult with the headmaster of the higher school and lay out his work in accordance with plans mutually arranged. This is essential where pupils are to be drafted from a lower to a higher school.

If by "management," school managers be meant, I should say both should be under the same control.

Value of competitive entrance examinations.

(3.) Such competitive entrance examinations as those in use in the Manchester Grammar School would in my opinion work satisfactorily. I have for many years had experience of these examinations. In one instance, out of 123 candidates the first and third were pupils from Brooklands School. Mr. Bryce, in his report on the Manchester School some years ago, said he attributed the excellence of the work done partly to the zeal and efficiency of the headmaster (Mr. Walker), and partly to the system of admitting boys by examination from the schools of the surrounding district. The value of competitive entrance examinations is beyond dispute.

How boys should be passed up from one school to another.

(4.) Probably boys may best be passed from one school to another by a system of examinations. I do not think it would be wise to rely upon the recommendation of a master of a lower school, whose interest it is to keep his pupils with him as long as he can. A properly conducted examination duly advertised, say, yearly or half-yearly, would secure the boys best fitted to profit by the advantages offered in the higher school.

Technical instruction to be given in purely technical schools.

(5.) This will necessarily vary with the character of a district —whether the population be dense or scattered. In the latter case it would perhaps be preferable to give a certain amount of instruction of a technical nature in the secondary school itself. I am of opinion that technical instruction should, as a rule, be given in strictly technical schools. My reason being, that boys up to 16 years of age, at least, have such great demands made on their time without entering upon strictly technical work.

Early specialisation most undesirable. Desirable to secure a sound grounding before beginning technical work.

(6.) It is a great mistake to specialise too soon. In my own experience I have found that if a youth spends his time up to the age of 16 in acquiring a sound all-round English education—

With (*a.*) Latin and Greek
or (*b.*) French and German,

or (*c.*) Chemistry and physics,
or (*d.*) Some such group

with mathematics in all cases he will then be well equipped to commence the study of technical work with some chance of success.

Value of elementary science to little boys.

I would not exclude chemistry, physics, and drawing from the curriculum of a school for boys of even 13 or 14 years, but would rather encourage the introduction of simple lessons on chemistry and physics in the case of even very young boys in the form of object lessons, teaching drawing to the very youngest. My reasons are—

(*a.*) That children are attracted by and interested in such lessons as appeal to their observation.
(*b.*) The taking of notes on elementary science and object lessons generally, with the necessary reproduction of them is excellent training of its kind.
(*c.*) Such lessons lay a foundation of valuable information not easily attainable in any other way.

Handicrafts should not be begun too soon.

It is especially a mistake to begin any handicraft work at a time when the pupil's general education is in a backward condition.

A suggestion for rural districts.

(7.) It is my belief that in rural districts valuable secondary education may be given by means of itinerant lecturers. Such a visiting master, if a teacher of geography or history, and provided with an optical lantern and slides, or of chemistry, with his box of apparatus, would be a welcome visitor in country schools. I have found this weekly visit of a master in languages, science and drawing both economical and efficient, the work being supplemented by the resident teachers on the school staff. The appointment of such lecturers would open up not a few desirable appointments to efficient teachers of special subjects.

Leaving examination.

III.—1. A leaving certificate would be most valuable as being

(*a.*) Inspiring to the pupil.
(*b.*) An incentive to the teacher.
(*c.*) A form of introduction to youths in quest of engagements, whether in a merchant's office, or in their entrance on a professional career.

Entrance into a college or public school may be made to depend upon the nature of such a certificate.

How examinations should be conducted.

2. The leaving examination should be conducted by examiners appointed by the governing body or authority.

Value of such a certificate to youths leaving school.

3. Answered in (1) above. It is my belief that Chambers of Commerce, the Society of Chartered Accountants, and other like public bodies, would largely avail themselves of such a ready means of accomplishing what they now perform with a very great amount of trouble and expense.

Helpful to the schoolmaster.

Moreover, a private schoolmaster would have a substantial and valuable recognition of work done, which is not at present the case.

4. It would be desirable to have a higher and a lower certificate. Schools are so widely apart in their range of work, according to the requirements of a district or individual needs.

I would suggest such grades (say roughly) as:—

1. English only.—Reading; spelling; writing.
   Grammar; geography; history.
   Arithmetic; algebra; Euclid.
   Drawing.
   Freehand and practical geometry.
2. The above plus Latin and Greek,
   Or French and German,
   Or Latin and one modern language.
3. The above English subjects plus photography and typewriting,
   Or chemistry and physics,
   Or higher drawing, *e.g.*, perspective, drawing from casts, &c.

Inspection and examination.

IV. Inspection is perhaps desirable, not examination. The admirable examinations instituted by the Oxford and Cambridge authorities and the College of Preceptors afford an excellent choice and one quite sufficient to test the work of a school without unduly increasing the anxieties of the masters or crippling his efforts in certain directions, and so causing him to work with unworthy aims.

A plea in either case for liberty.

In either case, whether inspection or examination, I would plead earnestly that the headmaster be allowed great freedom. On visiting the Lerber School at Berne, I was much struck with the feeling way in which the headmaster, then far advanced in years, answered my question as to the worry of Government interference by saying, "They are very good to me; I have much freedom." Mr. Thring has more than once in my hearing pleaded for "liberty." The more "freshness and life" a master has the more fertile in resource and enthusiastic in his profession, the more would he be cramped and discouraged by any unwise pressure from without. Inspection would greatly improve the condition of private schools, and conducted as they were by such men as *Fletcher*, *Joseph Bowstead*, *Matthew Arnold*, and *Dr. Morell*, the inspection would be looked forward to as a "field day." These names suggest to my mind many pleasant memories, and recall valuable suggestions freely offered and as thankfully accepted.

Value of inspection in case of private schools.

Endowments.

V.—(3.) *Apprenticing.*—I think a *considerable sum* would be wisely spent if devoted to that purpose.

My strong faith in training of young people for the office of teacher.

It was my good fortune to be apprenticed in a school which Mr. Matthew Arnold often referred to as highly efficient, and on one occasion I received a letter from him alluding to it as "a school he had never forgotten." I have no sympathy with those who decry the pupil teacher system, and I only wish some means existed by which I could hope to introduce a similar system into my own school.

Training of teachers. A certain proportion of staff to be pupil teachers.

VII. Young men with university degrees, but with no training whatever, offer themselves by hundreds year by year as assistant masters in private schools of whom a very small per-centage are in any sense fitted for the work they have undertaken. A trained pupil teacher is more apt and tractable than an adult; his methods are good; in any case his mind is more free to fall in with suggestions offered him. A pupil teacher devotes himself seriously to teaching as his life-work, and does not accept his position in a school as a mere convenience till he can procure other employment. I should advocate a short term of, say, three years' pupil-teachership followed by—

(*a.*) Either a two years' course at a training school, or a three years' college course at one of the universities. The question of expense would, in all probability, be a difficulty in many cases, though perhaps not insurmountable.

(*b.*) Very little difference need be made between the training of an elementary and a secondary school teacher. If both were trained together, certainly the elementary student would have no grievance.

Advisability of calling in help of universities.

(*c.*) The university should take a part in the work, if not by receiving men as resident students, much could be accomplished by means of attendance at day classes, such as those established in connexion with Victoria University and elsewhere.

I believe that in some of the elementary (school) training colleges a second or third years' man is well on towards taking his B.A. degree by the time his course at college has expired.

Registration of teachers. Personal, intellectual, and practical fitness.

(2.) Names of secondary school teachers may be placed on the register if they can produce (*a*) documentary evidence of *intellectual* fitness for the office, (*b*) proof of *practical* ability to communicate knowledge to others.

By documentary evidence I mean, for example:—

(*a.*) A university degree.

(*b.*) A Government (elementary) certificate of the highest class awarded after two years' residence in a training school, with a fair knowledge of some one modern language, or other equivalent extra subject; or

(*c.*) Any lower university certificate than that issued for a degree university certificate, the lowest being, say, the matriculation certificate of the *first* class; or

(*d.*) The diploma of the College of Preceptors or their higher certificate.

By practical proof of efficiency is meant that a person should give unmistakable evidence of possessing an aptitude for teaching, of being able to maintain discipline in a class, and to produce satisfactory results.

Registration should be directed from the Central Authority in London.

District authorities.

VIII.—(1.) County, perhaps, sufficient.

(2 and 3.) Certainly appointed *ad hoc*. Not a school board or a county council.

Governing council should be educated men (and women).

The council should be chosen from among the educated portion of the community in the county or district, *e.g.*, university men, clergy of all denominations, doctors, lawyers, and professional men generally, teachers, and others, who are found to be competent to deal with educational matters.

(5.) *See* above (3.)

(6.) *Examination and inspection*, if any, should be under the control of the central authority in London.

Central Educational Board.

IX.—(*a.*) A central educational board is desirable.

(*b.*) The functions of the central board would be to direct the working of the whole secondary school system; to collate information, appoint examiners and inspectors, and open up avenues by which deserving schoolmasters may become known and earn promotion in their profession.

(*c.*) With a Minister of Education.

Why local councils should have liberty.

(*e.*) Here again I should put in a plea for greater liberty, in order that the local authorities should be allowed sufficient scope to follow out their plans freely and meet the necessities of their own special district—so diverse would be the requirements of, for example, Manchester and Pembroke, just as the schoolmaster would look for liberty in the drawing-up of his own time-table, &c. The more a teacher or a committee is harrassed by irritating restrictions the less pleasant and profitable does the work become. Tiresome restrictions being removed, the teachers are satisfied with their profession, and the best men are content to remain in it.

Registration of schools.

Desirable to registerschools.

X. A registration of schools might be a great stimulus to the teacher and a valuable reward of efficiency. Certain schools might be scheduled as fitting institutions for the training of young teachers, who may resort to them simultaneously with their college training in large towns as "practising" schools. It would be a great distinction for a school to be so entered in the official register.

Conditions.

Conditions of registration may be—

(*a.*) A good record of work previously done in, say: (1) entering boys well into any of the public schools; (2)

suitability of school premises to their purpose; (3) the quality and completeness of the furniture and apparatus; extent of playground; (4) competency of the teaching staff; (5) methods of instruction; and (6) general condition of the school and its surroundings.

Privileges.—One privilege that may be granted to private schools is freedom in competition for scholarships anywhere on equal terms with the more favoured public schools. Competition for scholarships on equal terms with public schools.

A well-conducted school under private management may be allowed to receive a small building grant, such as for the erection of a chemical laboratory, workshop, gymnasium, or other requisite.

4. It appears to me that where a school has maintained its efficiency and is capable of doing good work, it would be wise to encourage existing schools rather than start new ones. At any rate, some consideration should be shown to those who under great disadvantages have built costly premises, provided fairly good means of secondary education, and rely upon their schools for the maintenance of themselves and their families. Good existing schools should be encouraged.

I would respectfully suggest that the Commissioners take note of capable men who might be put into positions where their experience will be valuable to the State supposing they are compelled to relinquish their schools in view of proposed changes. A suggestion.

A very important element comes in for consideration in dealing with private schools that makes it impossible for me to answer satisfactorily the question "at what age should pupils be transferred from the elementary to the secondary school?" Private schools have their advantages as well as public schools, and parents are not slow to see these. Elementary school pupils come outside consideration as far as my school is concerned. Exclusiveness of middle-class parents adverse to progress of secondary schools.

My own opinion is that the social status question is a great hindrance to education generally; at the same time I sympathise with those who have an abhorrence of a broad accent or strongly provincial dialect introduced into their own families.

(5.) *Mixed Schools.*—My experience, as gathered in a large elementary (mixed) school, is favourable to the teaching of boys and girls in such schools in the same classes by the same teacher, but I should not advocate the adoption of the system in private secondary schools, where the pupils are older, and drawn often from a different class of society. Mixed seeondary schools not advisable.

Mixed classes benefit both boys and girls. I am convinced the girls make better progress when taught with boys, and the refining influence of the girls is beneficial to the boys. In a long course of experience, I have never known a boy notably unruly in the presence of the girls—certainly, never coarse. "Mixed" classes advantageous in elementary schools.

E. Lloyd Jones.

Brooklanes School, Sale, Cheshire,
May 29th, 1894.

PROFESSOR JAMES SULLY.

Training of teachers.

VII.—(*a.*) Without attempting to draw up a complete system of training, I would express a strong opinion that it should include a careful and thorough study of principles along with that of methods and adequate practice in the actual business of teaching. By the principles, I understand those biological (physiological) and psychological laws which are now recognised as lying at the basis of human development, as well as of the healthy and efficient discharge of bodily and mental functions. Psychology aided by (human) physiology should form the ground-work and a principal part of the theory of education. To me it is incomprehensible how any thoughtful man or woman could set about assisting at and regulating what are the most subtle and complex of nature's processes, the growth of ideas and of moral dispositions, without an intelligent grasp of the laws of those processes.

The mastery of physiological principles, the conditions of healthy brain action, and generally what is termed school hygiene, seem to me a part of this training in theory which requires special emphasizing. I am convinced from direct observation, and from what I have gathered from medical men and parents, that the work in many, I fear in most, of our secondary schools is, not only by reason of its aggregate amount and the perplexing number of subjects taken up together, fatal to quiet healthy mind growth and a smooth orderly progress of ideas, but also oppressive, dispiriting, and fraught with serious danger to health. The last has, I think, been conclusively shown by Dr. Dukes with reference to Rugby and other schools. Now it seems to me that one most valuable safeguard against the continuance and even the possible intensification of these evils is a clearer insight on the part of our teachers into the conditions of healthy brain action, the great liability of these "labile" organs of the brain to disturbance, and the more important and best recognised symptoms of such disturbances. In order that this part of the theory of education be duly enforced, it is, I consider, of the first importance that our teacher-students themselves should not be over-burdened with subjects as I know from observation that they often are, but should have a sufficiently prolonged period of study, and should work under healthy and cheerful conditions. The training college should, in this, as in other respects, be the model for the school.

Along with psychology and physiology there should go an elementary course in logic, so far as this bears on the clear verbal expression and full expansion of thought, and the order of dependence of the various parts of knowledge.

A similarly elementary exposition of the principles of ethics, with the least reference to speculative disputes, and the greatest working out into the details of duty and elements of good character, should, I suppose, be added. I believe that all these

subjects are clearly recognised in Germany (if not also in France) as forming the scientific basis of training.

Lastly, the theoretic side of the subject should include, I think, the historical study of the main theories, and this not merely because we cannot understand our present position except by retracing the steps by which it has been reached, but because education is so vast and complex a subject that, with all our scientific progress, we are in danger of magnifying certain aspects to the disregard of others, and of losing elements of permanent value gained by our predecessors.

With the study of principles, and their concrete historical embodiments, there should of course go a study of methods, the lectures and reading here being followed up by practice in class-teaching, criticism lessons, submission to the principal of notes of lessons, reports of progress, and so forth.

Two things seem to me to be desirable additions to this practical part of the work as recognised in our women's training colleges :—(1.) The teacher-student should be required to carry out a systematic record of progress, physical, intellectual, and moral, of his pupils.* For this (as for other) purpose his class should be small, so that he may get to know his individual pupils *à fond*. (2.) Towards the end of his course he should be called on to give a short lesson to a single scholar, guided only by a preliminary knowledge of age and previous studies. Convinced as I am that much of our class-teaching is virtually the teaching of three or four of the quickest and brightest of its members, I deem it of the greatest importance that our training colleges for secondary teachers should lay great weight on the problem of dealing with individual children as such, and on that most difficult part of the teacher's art, the bringing on of the dull and backward pupils.

The theoretical and the practical parts of training ought, I think, to be brought as closely as possible together in time, and to be made to interpenetrate. I have found as the result of many years' lecturing at the Maria Grey and other training colleges, that the exposition of principles requires to be followed up by a repeated working of them into concrete and practical shape. This has sometimes been done by the principal or assistant, in connexion with the supervision and discussion of students' notes of the lectures, and is still more effectively done by appeals to principles in the criticism of lessons and of notes of lessons. It is, I have found, only when students have thus clothed the principle with ample practical illustration that it acquires a definite meaning; but for this it is apt to lie in their minds little more than a meaningless verbal formula.

(*b.*) Under this head I am disposed to emphasise the importance of assimilating the training in principles. The

* This might be made to include such observations as are being carried out by the students of the Normal College, Worcester, Mass., and other American training colleges.

principles which underlie good teaching are the same whatever the subjects taught. More especially those who are likely to have to do with boys and girls in preparatory schools, and in the lower forms of public and other schools of similar grade appear to need precisely the same knowledge of child-nature as teachers in elementary schools. At the present moment in this country there seems to me to be a glaring contrast between the way in which young children are taught in our board or other elementary schools and in our secondary schools, this difference being largely owing to the presence and the absence of a study of principles (of course I here omit Kindergartens). The difference between the two kinds of training needed turns on the wider range of subjects to be taught by she secondary teacher, and the greater difficulties of these subjects. A teacher in a secondary school should not only know his subjects well, he requires, much more than the elementary teacher, logical training, so as to be able to think out his subjects in the clearest way for the purpose of teaching. He must also give considerable attention to the methods of teaching those more advanced subjects, *e.g.*, languages, mathematics, history in its fuller and more difficult treatment, and so forth.

To this it may be added that as aiming at a higher development of intelligence and character than the teacher in the limited period of the elementary school can aim at, he needs a deeper insight into ethical principles.

(*c.*) The last remarks lead on to the point raised under (*c*). I consider that secondary teachers should, as far as possible, be graduates of a university, and should take up training after graduation. And this not only because, as secondary teachers, they should be men and women of culture, but because the study of the principles of education requires the preliminary discipline of university studies. As lecturer in psychology, I have found that young women of 18 or thereabouts, coming almost straight from the high school, and having had but little, if any scientific study of the higher sort, show a want of aptitude in grasping psychological principles.

The universities ought, I think, certainly to take part in training. They should do this not only, as the Universities of Cambridge and London now do, by way of a special certificate examination, but by recognising certain subjects, such as psychology, logic, and ethics, in their bearings on education, as also the history of education, as having university rank, as subjects of the higher university scholarship, for which provision should be made by professors or lecturers, as in Germany, France, America, and two Universities of Scotland, and also by a due recognition in the examination scheme. This last might be effected with advantage, as it is in Edinburgh, by substituting these subjects for others at the ordinary degree examination. [In Germany, and in certain of the American universities, a student may take

his doctorate in philosophy by selecting as the subject of his thesis an educational (pedagogic) subject.]

The university might, I think, follow up this recognition of educational scholarship in the ordinary degree by instituting a higher degree in education. This would tempt a certain number of men and women interested in educational subjects to specialise their study. It would have the further great advantage of stimulating the production of advanced work on pedagogic subjects comparable with those which may be found in Germany and elsewhere.

In this connexion I beg to enclose a scheme drawn up by a committee of the Convocation of the University of London as the basis of a higher degree in education. Mrs. Bryant and myself took part in devising this scheme.

I. Principles :—

A. Sciences underlying Education :—

1. Physical :—

Elements of Human Physiology with special reference to the bodily characteristics of childhood and youth, and the conditions of the healthy development of body and mind.

2. Mental :—

(*a.*) *Psychology*, with special reference to the natural basis of individuality, and to the action of extenal conditions on the development of mind.

(*b.*) *Logic*, including the analysis of the processes which issue in logical thought and its failures, and the logical methods of the discovery and exposition of knowledge.

(*c.*) *Ethics*, including the development of good and bad character, the ethical value of the different educational agencies, as well as the consideration of various ideas of conduct and character.

*** These subjects shall be treated as required for the B.A. and B.Sc. Honours, besides the special developments mentioned above.

B. Philosophy of Education :—

1. The Doctrine of Educational Ends.

2. The Political Philosophy of Education, including the educational function of the Family and of the State, and the relation of Education to social stability and progress.

3. The History of Educational Theories and Systems.

II. Application of Principles :—

A. Methodology of Education :—

1. Determination of knowledge values, with a view to the selection of subjects of study.

2. Arrangement of these subjects.

3. Methods of exposition appropriate to these subjects.
4. History of Educational Methods.

B. Organisation of Education:—

1. The Home, the School, and the University; their several functions and mutual relations.

2. The Construction of the system of Education in its several branches, as physical, intellectual, and moral Education.

3. The Co-ordination of the several grades of Education into a complete national system, illustrated by reference to Educational organisations, past and present, in different countries.

Every Candidate shall be required to furnish satisfactory evidence of experience in teaching.

JAMES SULLY.

DR. SADLER.

The advantage of the removal of an endowment from an out-of-the-way place to a more populous centre in the same neighbourhood, illustrated by the removal of the Holgate Grammar School from Hemsworth to Barnsley and its amalgamation with the Barnsley Grammar School.

As the removal of an endowment from one place to another is a somewhat rare case, it may be well to give a short account of the removal of Archbishop Holgate's Grammar School from Hemsworth to Barnsley (compare the report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on the Endowed Schools Act).

The school was founded in 1546, and its endowment, including a sum of 300*l.* from the Archbishop Holgate's hospital, was in 1883 about 700*l.* a year; but in the words of the then Vice-president of the Committee of Council on Education, the foundation had been a total failure from at least the beginning of the century, the 700*l.* a year having been spent on an average of 11 boys, and even in 1886 there were only 26 boys in attendance, of whom nine were boarders and only three came from Hemsworth itself, two being sons of the second master. The Charity Commissioners therefore proposed in 1879, and again in 1881, to transfer the school to some more populous place, and in this they were at first, at least, supported by the trustees, the then Archbishop of York, and the headmaster.

Barnsley was selected by the Commissioners as the largest centre of population within easy reach of Hemsworth, unprovided, or very imperfectly provided, with educational endowments. They, however, made it a condition that 2,000*l.* should be provided for the enlargement of the existing grammar school

buildings at Barnsley, and this condition was promptly complied with.

In 1883 the Commissioners issued copies of their proposed scheme, but, as was to be expected, the inhabitants of Hemsworth did not submit without protest to the removal of their school and of the greater part of its endowment, and the Archbishop and some of the influential trustees also changed their views and led the opposition in a contest which lasted until 1887.

The main objections which were urged against the removal of the school were:—I. That it would be a violation of the founder's wishes. II. That it would be an injury to vested interests. III. That the foundation of a former Archbishop of York should not be removed from his diocese. IV. That the population of Hemsworth has increased and was likely to increase.

To these arguments it was replied—

I. That Archbishop Holgate fully recognised and acted on the principle of the transfer of more or less obsolete endowments to purposes for which they were more needed, inasmuch as his three grammar schools were founded out of certain (probably monastic) impropriations and endowments which he had received from the King (Henry VIII.) in exchange for 67 manors belonging to the See of York, which he had transferred to the King in 1545, when he was made archbishop. The Charity Commissioners were then only making, after a lapse of 300 years, another and much less radical re-arrangement of endowments.

II. The charter of the school, granted by Henry VIII., gave no preferential title to any particular parish, but declared that it was founded in order that "the "children of this kingdom of England might be edu- "cated in good manners, the art of grammar, and "other liberal knowledge."

III. Barnsley was at the time of the foundation of this school as much in the diocese of York as Hemsworth, and still has 30,000 inhabitants of that diocese within five miles of it mainly dependent on Barnsley for Secondary Education, whilst Hemsworth had not more than 17,000 within the same distance.

V. The increase in the population of Hemsworth was, and was likely to be, of the mining class, whose children leave school at 13, and would be provided for by that portion of the endowment which it was proposed to leave at Hemsworth for the benefit of the elementary schools, and by the six Holgate Scholarships, each with free education, at any convenient grammar school that might be selected by the parents, and an annual allowance of 10*l.* for travelling expenses.

The scheme was eventually approved, and the school transferred to Barnsley in 1887 where it has proved a complete success.

About 70 boys are educated there, and the number would be much larger if the endowment of the school was such as would enable the governors either to lower the tuition fees (averaging 10*l.* a year), or provide more free scholarships without interfering with the maintenance of a sufficient and competent staff.

The boys have done well at the various examinations at which they have presented themselves. Some of them are already being aided by exhibitions at institutions for more advanced education, and in addition to the 2,000*l.* subscribed by the inhabitants of the district in 1883, about 2,000*l.* more has already been contributed from the neighbourhood for scholarships and additions to or improvements of the buildings of the school.

(Signed) MICHAEL THOS. SADLER, M.D.,
One of the Governing Body of
Archbishop Holgate's Grammar School.

Barnsley, June 5th, 1894.

MR. ACLAND, Chairman Technical Educational Committee, Devon County Council.

Universities.

I. 2.—(Not strictly under this question, but no other place seems so fit.)

Nothing has so much improved the schools attended by boys and girls from rural districts as the Oxford and Cambridge local examinations.

The result is to be seen now in the much greater appreciation by young farmers (from 35 downwards) of the advantages of education. For the class of schools affected by those examinations, they are more effective than the separate examination of schools.

Secondary schools and the arrangements.

II. 1.—For rural districts no attempt should be made to establish preparatory schools. The difficulties to be overcome are so numerous and obvious that it is not necessary to specify them. Day schools for such young children would be impossible.

Boarding schools would not pay. Rating powers would not be used.

II. 3.—Competitive entrance scholarships tell heavily in favour of urban against rural children. Such is our experience in our technical education work, in the endeavour to select scholars for technical instruction.

II. 4. No special measures are needed to facilitate the passing of scholars from one school to another. This does already take place automatically.

II. 5.—In rural districts, and for the purposes of those who live in the country, secondary schools, with a good general education and a technical side, are the most suited and have a better chance of success.

II. 6.—The general opinion of the most thoughtful parents seems to be that, first of all, a good general education must be secured (excluding Greek, and with not much Latin, but including French, and if possible, German in some cases), and that the age of 14, or at the very earliest 13, is early enough to begin any special subject of a technical kind. (*See* Postscript).

II. 7.—This extremely difficult and most important point is reserved for a full memorandum to be appended to these replies.

Leaving examination.

III. and IV. Examination is often very much dreaded, specially in lower grade schools. Voluntary examinations, such as the university local examinations and others, act as a wholesome stimulus, and, to some extent, as a test of the merit of respective schools. On the other hand, inspection is necessary, and if registration of schools (as suggested below) is carried out, submission to inspection by the body controlling the register would be of course a necessary condition. If that suggestion is not carried out, all endowed schools, and all schools in which teachers can obtain a title to registration, or which receive public money of any kind, or are allowed to receive scholars, or bursary holders, or exhibitioners, could be compelled to submit to it. If no specific legislation takes place, this would be carried out by regulations of local authority education committees, or local educational authorities.

Endowments.

V. 2.—If any authority has the power of changing either the application or situation of endowments conferred upon it, it should be the local educational authority for Secondary Education, subject to appeal to Charity Commissioners.

V. 3. (*a.*)—(*See* below). (*b.*)—It is very doubtful whether apprenticing is not one of the most useful of endowments. Of course the conditions of apprenticship must require supervision and correction. But there is in some trades no superior method of training provided well considered conditions are insisted upon, and half-time school instruction might be one of the conditions of endowed apprenticeship.

(*a.*)—The best way of using endowments applied to elementary education in rural districts is to raise them by one grade, as for instance by bursaries, and allow children from elementary schools to get one step higher on the ladder by means of such endowments. It would be wise to keep the distribution of them wide so as to benefit as many children as possible rather than to concentrate them in larger amounts on a smaller number of children. The children will sort themselves at each stage.*

* This is not asserted as a general principle, but with special reference to these endowments. The opposite is probably truer at higher stages on the ladder.

Relation of elementary and secondary schools.

VI. 1.—In rural districts higher grade elementary schools are out of place, and in small country towns the establishment of them would tend to weaken the secondary schools, the lower grade of which is the type most wanted in such towns, and most of such towns possess something of the kind.

Training of teachers.

VII. If the * universities could provide training in the art of teaching an immense difficulty in the organisation of rural education would be removed, namely that of supplying teachers (of science and other special subjects) who combine a thorough knowledge of their subjects with a power of teaching it to the children of uneducated parents.

Registration of teachers.

VII. 2.—Registration of teachers is most urgently needed. It should be gradually made compulsory, but without loss of time. The inclusion of elementary teachers in the same register as secondary teachers may be, as a matter of mere sentiment, and, perhaps, of parliamentary expediency, of some slight importance, but for all practical purposes, and particularly for all special purpose of the register, it would be worse than useless, cumbersome, and injurious.

District authorities for secondary education.

VIII. 1.—A large county such as Somerset, Dorset, Devon, or Cornwall, is amply large enough for any authority, but not too large for the purposes of Secondary Education. County feeling would support a county authority, but would act strongly against combination of counties. Local knowledge is of the utmost importance, and few of the persons available possess, in an efficent manner, the knowledge of more than one county of such a size.

VIII. 2 and 5.—In my opinion, after four years' pioneer work at technical education in rural districts, the best authority for educational control would be a committee of the county council increased by (1) co-optation, exercised by the committee within a rather narrow limit of number; (2) representation of (*a*) registered secondary teachers in the county, (*b*) managers of secondary schools or university colleges. Such representatives not to exceed in number one-half of the elected and co-opted members, *i.e.*, one-third of the whole. Elementary teachers would not on such a committee be of much service, and would probably considerably hamper the working of such an authority, *i.e.*, as long as they were engaged in teaching; of course, after retirement they could and would be co-opted. I think there is no need for separate representation of the universities, the elected secondary teachers would represent them.

VIII. 6.—Elementary education is so entirely distinct as a professsion, in its functions and in its aims from Secondary

* In this memorandum this word is intended to include all the universities and university colleges.

Education, that more would be lost than gained by associating it directly in any way with Secondary Education.

The expediency of conferring on an elected local authority any direct power of control over governing bodies is very doubtful. The authority would inevitably have strong indirect influence, which would work better and with less friction, and would not divide responsibility or weaken *esprit de corps*.

The authority ought to have the power of creating new secondary schools on a local initiative, but not without it. It might have limited power of rating, it ought to have the power of re-arranging endowments within certain limits. It should also have the power of inspecting all schools where registered teachers are employed, but should not be an examining body.

Central educational board.

IX. No central board is needed except perhaps for registration of teachers. It would tend to hamper and confuse local action and divide responsibility. It could have no power except through exchequer grants, and such grants are not required by public opinion for Secondary Education. But if such a board is to exist, it is of the utmost importance that it should include "lay" representatives from the local authorities well acquainted with local requirements and local difficulties. By a combined body, representative of all the universities only, the register of secondary schools and teachers would be perfectly well controlled.

It would be far better to avoid a central educational authority as far as Secondary Education is concerned.

Control of Secondary Education.

Registration.

X. 1.—A Minister is not required for the control of Secondary Education unless a large amount of Imperial funds is to be devoted to Secondary Education, which is neither desired nor advisable. A register of secondary schools controlled by the same body as that which controls the register of teachers would be desirable. Recommendation by the local educational authority would be a necessary and sufficient condition, and it is desirable that the authority should have that responsibility. Admission of the pupils of a school to public examination, and of its teachers to the teachers' register, would be sufficient privileges to induce managers to apply for such recommendation.

Continuation and evening schools.

X. 3.—(*See* Memorandum on Rural Districts.)

Founding of new public schools.

X. 4.—This question should be left to local educational authorities.

Joint classes of boys and girls.

X. 5.—On this I have no personal experience, but I have so often heard the practice well spoken of by experts that I think it worth while to mention it.

Separate Memorandum on Secondary Education in Rural Districts.

It is of the utmost importance that the difference between rural and urban districts in regard to the organisation of Secondary Education should be fully and vividly realised.

In large towns both this supply and its organisation have a natural tendency to improve themselves by the mere stimulus of the constant demand, as well as by the close and constant intercourse of experts in education.

Even in small country towns the demand tends to create a certain kind of supply; but in purely rural districts the supply does not exist, and the demand is only now beginning to be felt. The difficulties are very great, and greatest where the want is sorest. In towns the children are close to the schools and to the various kinds of teachers. In rural districts the schools are far apart; the children widely scattered. There are at present none but elementary teachers. The task, then, that is before us is to carry as near as possible to the doors of the inhabitants of, not only the villages, but also of the surrounding country districts, the opportunity of continuing the education of their children for three or four years after they have left the elementary school. For the lower grade an initial difficulty lies in the fact that during nearly the whole of the time of year during which the children can be collected for instruction, a large proportion of them have wet and dark lanes to traverse, generally speaking only a small proportion of them can be collected at any time of the year earlier than 6.30 or 7 p.m.

For such children continuation schools are by far the best means of instruction. (The question of providing instructors for such schools will be dealt with later on.) It is important to realise that the great difficulty which has recently arisen with regard to continuation schools, from the fact that most of the children had left the elementary schools at too early an age and had therefore lost a good deal of what they had acquired, is but temporary. For there can be little doubt that the recent resuscitation of these schools under the county councils, for purposes of technical education, will, if they can be steadily maintained for four or five years, have the effect of remedying that evil, and so of creating a widespread demand for further teaching of a higher and secondary kind after work hours.

Therefore the present apathy must not be considered any longer normal. The initial difficulty noticed above will have to be met, as the demand springs up, by a system of travelling teachers, it being cheaper and easier to move the teachers than the pupils, both on account of their age and for other obvious reasons. It is to be hoped that the universities will realise the wide field that is thus opened to them for influencing and raising the general level of education in the country.

The secondary schools in country towns should be made centres from which teachers would be found for this evening work. This has been the system upon which the technical education committee of Devon have, to some extent with success, already worked. These schools can also be used (as has been done in Devon) as centres for the aggregation of elementary teachers to prepare themselves for holding continuation classes.

Teachers for these schools should be supplied from the universities. Their salaries will have to be augmented for their peripatetic work, probably by the rating power of the local educational authority.

II. But there is another grade of rural children to be provided for, whose requirements are larger and more difficult to meet. These are the children of the smaller farmers and tradesmen, and professional men inhabiting villages and rural districts. A small proportion of them might be provided for by day schools placed at well-selected centres near railway stations.

But I fear that the proposal to use the rates for the establishment of such schools would rouse a storm of local indignation and reaction which it would take many years to allay. The ratepayers would combine with the private-school adventurers and raise a most formidable resistance. Moreover this would be only a very partial remedy, and one that would be most difficult and least effective where most wanted, viz., in remote districts.

It appears to me that, in the face of these objections it is inexpedient to waste time in considering further the question of multiplying schools, and that a far more effective plan is (1) to every use indirect means of improving existing schools, and (2) by a widely extended system of exhibitions, scholarships, and bursaries, to put it within the power of parents to provide for the education of their children. The local authority might be trusted and empowered to provide schools in specially ill-provided districts, but the greatest caution will have to be exercised in making any such proposal, while the use of the rates to provide bursaries would be much more easy. The impossibility of working the bursary system in some districts, from the absence of schools, would lead to a demand for the exercise of such a power.

There is one special point to be borne in mind, which is often lost sight of, viz., that a small proportion only of the children of agricultural employers or labourers require agricultural training, because their tendency is rather to seek employment in more expensive industries, and the parents desire to have their children trained to various industries other than that of agriculture. I say this with the full knowledge, gained by inconvenient experience, of the depletion of the rural districts. But this will be better prevented by giving parents resident in rural districts a good chance of educating their children for various careers than by attempting to teach them that which they almost learn by nature, as it is going on all round them. The

country has attractions enough to keep its residents if it had fewer disadvantages, and the educational difficulty is the most formidable of those disadvantages.

(Signed) CHARLES THOMAS DYKE ACLAND.

P.S.—December, 1894.—I desire to draw special attention to the success of the agricultural side recently added to the Ashburton Grammar School, where the technical instruction has been grafted on to general education. *See* Royal Agricultural Society's Examinations. Seven out of the first 12 in all England come from Ashburton.

Memorandum by C. G. Ellaby, M.A., Wadham College, Oxford, Headmaster, Banister Court School, Southampton.

I.—*Examination of Schools by the Universities.*

(2.) I think that the university examinations have been most beneficial to all schools, and certainly not least to the smaller ones. The latter chiefly make use of the Oxford and Cambridge local examinations, and, most probably, there are many schools whose practice resembles mine. My highest class take the senior local, and my second the junior, the next two classes those of the College of Preceptors. The work is thus—for the College of Preceptors follow the local examinations—to a very large extent suggested and controlled by the universities—in our case by Oxford. Parents, as a rule, expect their sons to pass the junior local examination before leaving, and, speaking as ocal secretary for both universities, I know that the chief schools round here use the examinations in this way. Anything that would displace this control and substitute that of a Government department is very much to be deprecated. The whole character of the university examination calling for thought and ntelligence rather than mere recollection of facts differs entirely from that of the papers set for teachers in primary schools, so ar as I have any knowledge of them.

The only objection to the examination of the Oxford and Cambridge Joint Board is the expense. It is also rather more classical in its requirements, and so, perhaps, not so well suited to the average boy in smaller schools.

II.—*Secondary Schools and their Arrangements.*

(2.) So far as I understand this question I should say that certainly there must be two grades at least of secondary schools

in the present state of social feeling in the south of England. At Cheltenham, where I was at school, besides the college, there is an excellent grammar school, and in Southampton. Banister Court School stands in much the same relation to the grammar school. It would be manifestly unfair to support one school only with a grant, and to neglect the other, if both are efficient.

(3.) The system of entrance scholarships at the universities is very satisfactory, though the growing custom of holding combined examinations renders it much more difficult for boys of ability, in any subject out of the common, to get scholarships. Still, most boys have a chance somewhere, and the limit of age is not too low.

On the other hand, the system of scholarships at public schools for small boys is very injurous. We must prepare for them, as there is no other means of entering a great school for the son of a poor man; but I have noticed that most boys who succeed are fagged and jaded, and I fancy I detect in the work of many at the universities that they have lost interest in their work from early forcing. I am not prepared to suggest a remedy, except that great schools, like St. Paul's, should not be allowed to charge high fees for day boys.

(6.) An eminent engineer at the docks here told me that in his opinion boys should not begin technical instruction until sixteen or seventeen at least, and several boys who have left Banister Court School at that age have risen rapidly in engineering and manufacturing work. A large nailmaker, whose sons were here, said that this was the general opinion among manufacturers in Newcastle and Gateshead.

III.—*Leaving Examinations.*

If a boy has passed the Cambridge or Oxford Local Examination or Responsions, there is no need for him to pass any "leaving examination." If any such are held, the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge are the only authorities which would be satisfactory to most secondary schools. The best way to ensure efficient teaching is not through a leaving examination, but through an annual examination of all members of the school. If a "leaving examination" is instituted it must be received as a substitute for the various professional preliminary examinations.

IV.—*Inspection and Examination.*

Most good schools are thoroughly well known to the public in their immediate neighbourhood. Probably every arrangement in Banister Court School is known to numbers of the inhabitants of Southampton, but still no doubt inspection and examination are good things, and in cases where bad premises and faulty arrangements exist the sooner they are known the better. From my experience as a local secretary I consider that most of the schools about here are efficient and that the teaching in them is

thorough, the only clear exception was in the case of a Proprietary College, but there too the inefficient head has left and been replaced by a good teacher.

But though I welcome most thoroughly both examination and inspection it must be entrusted to competent and experienced hands, and in my opinion, and that of other headmasters here, no one but the universities are fit to conduct either. A man who is sent down to examine, and still more to inspect, must be one who has had experience himself as a teacher in a secondary school of the same kind as the one to which he is sent. He ought to be no stranger to the feelings and difficulties of university men, he should know how great are the difficulties of working a class now that there are so many examinations which a boy has to pass in order to enter a profession, or a university or a technical college, above all he should be one who has no strong bias in favour of any particular system of education but one who can make allowances for the play of local opinion and the traditions which even a small school groups round itself in fifty years. There are many men now residing at the universities with some experience of school life who would make excellent inspectors, and their visits would be welcomed in all efficient private schools. No school that could help itself would admit even a well meaning inspector who had no knowledge of better class schools, or who was known to hold peculiar views, or, if I may venture to say so, who was not a gentleman. It is not merely a workshop or manufactory that he will enter but the home of an Englishman, or Englishwoman, and though it is only just that those who conduct a most important business should prove that they are competent, yet provided that is done their wishes and even their prejudices may well be humoured, and even as it is, British parents are as a rule able to take care of themselves.

I would suggest that schools who are willing to be visited by official inspectors from Oxford or Cambridge should not be forced to submit to Government inspection. As to examination, if a whole school could be examined at a moderate cost most private schools would welcome such examination, or I would force them to submit to it, but such examination should be on the lines of the university local examinations and not mere questions on fact, which appear to delight those who examine at the primary schools.

* * * * *

VI.

(3.) The boys from board schools are not as a rule in this neighbourhood able to do the work of the lower classes in secondary schools, and except in the case of really clever boys it is a pity to turn their education in the direction of sedentary pursuits, which are already too full. Parents here feel this, and few board school boys are willing to continue at school.

VII.—*The Training of Teachers.*

The only real training that can be of any good in a secondary school is that which the teacher has received in his own school days and at his university, and afterwards as under master under some good head.

The two great qualifications needed in a teacher besides the elementary ones of industry and temper, are to be able to keep order and to stir, interest in his pupils. A boy who has been a monitor at a great school and has not failed, or who has been Captain of his College XI. or VIII., will generally succeed in the first; no one can hope to essay the second unless he possesses wide reading and enthusiasm. None of these qualities are given or improved by examination in educational theories. I have read many books on education, including Mr. Arthur Sidgwick's; excellent leaflets, but I do not see how they could form a teacher. There are so many methods, and a good master reaches the goal by so many different paths that I cannot see how any rule can be laid down.

It is not, I think, captious to notice that many of the best writers on education—I do not, of course, allude to Mr. Sidgwick—failed as practical teachers. I have never found anyone who could explain in words how he was so successful in teaching any particular subject except that he loved it; certainly no one can explain why some masters never can keep order. No doubt a very great deal might be done by experiments like that by Dr. Fearon, at Winchester, in putting young graduates to teach before his eyes, but chiefly, I think, in showing those who are not able to teach that they had better seek some other profession.

(*b.*) The system of training pursued in elementary schools is particularly unsuited to secondary schools. Much too much stress is laid on form and on systems of marking, and the like—as far as I can tell from my experience as manager of a board school. The trained teachers cannot teach as well as graduates, and pretty much the same proportion of them as of university men fail to maintain discipline. I am not saying that pass men should be allowed to become teachers without any further preparation, but I would rather see them compelled to take up some higher subjects, say a foreign language, or even the study and practice of gymnastics at a first-rate gymnasium before calling them to take a post. I spoke with some of the best elementary teachers during the summer meeting at Wadham a few years ago, and not one expressed any belief in the training they had received.

(*c.*) The universities would probably make the fewest mistakes, as they are more in touch with the little schools than any Government authorities could be.

VII.—*Registration.*

(2.) All teachers ought to be registered. No one should be allowed to register who has not taken a university degree in honours, or in addition to taking a pass degree has qualified in some special subject. Registration, in the future, should be compulsory on all teachers. There is no doubt that a few schools still exist where the masters are grossly uneducated and incompetent, but I think that these are chiefly preparatory schools, where the parents are indifferent to everything except the food and lodging, and as examinations are very harmful to small boys and girls, the only cure is to see that those who undertake such a charge have some qualification. No private school that objected to get proper masters could fairly complain if its deficiencies were brought before the public eye. Very many people who are in no degree fitted to teach are eminently suited to undertake the care of little children, and it is most desirable that nothing should be done to prevent the heads of schools retaining the services of such persons when they can be got. The moral tone of a school is to some degree in their hands, and we need their assistance at every step.

VIII.—*District Authorities for Secondary Education.*

(1.) The area would be that of a county or a county borough; the authority of a borough should include its suburbs, which are practically part of itself, and which have nothing in common with the country districts. There is too a tendency to place schools just outside a town.

(2.) A committee constituted like the present Free Library Committees, half of public representatives and half of experts, would be best. The danger appears to be that the experts might be more of the class who call themselves educationists, who have no real knowledge of schools and have not the plain common sense of town councillors. I have worked for some years in the Southampton Free Library Committee with members of the town council and also as extension secretary with members of the County Technical Committee, and I am sure that English business men are only too willing to follow experts in matters of which they have peculiar knowledge, as the purchase of books for a library, or the choice of popular lectures. On the other hand, I have seen a mixed council of councillors and educationists mismanage an important institution for want of knowledge. To avoid this danger the universities should be asked to appoint one or two experts at least to sit on the district authority; of course if money is to be expended the representative body must, on the last resort, be supreme.

(3.) The school board is practically unfit to undertake the control of secondary education because it is elected for quite a different task, and there is no certainty that its members would be suitable men. I have indicated in my last answer the body

that I consider would do least harm. Secondary schools are at any rate free from the religious difference of primary schools.

(5.) It would be very unjust if bodies which have done very much to further the education in England such as the local examination and extension committees, and the most important public and private schools in a district had no representation in a district authority. Perhaps the universities might be asked to nominate local experts, or the town council might co-opt members, but at any rate all schools concerned should be allowed to state their claims before such bodies.

(6.) It will be a great pity to give district authorities any power that will enable them to direct or control the studies of the boys attending the secondary schools of their district. I am sure that in most cases they would not wish to use this power, but there would always be a danger, though even this would be less injurious to education than a Government control that would destroy all originalty in teachers by rigid uniformity.

Surely it will be better to improve all existing schools, whether public or private, rather than to create new ones, except in the rare case where a locality is without a good day school. Let all schools be inspected and examined by men sent down from the universities who can make their report if it is desirable to the district authority. Then, if a rate is levied, and I do not say this is desirable, let it be given to all schools that are efficient and carried on in suitable premises. Probably the most inefficient schools still existing in England are some of the smaller endowed schools which are not dependent on public support. A private school after all must, at any rate, gain public favour to exist at all, and my own experience at a great public school and what I have heard certainly does not lead me to think the governing bodies interfere with headmasters if the numbers keep up. There are certainly many bad teachers in private schools and many foolish ideas, but so there are in other schools.

At present it does not seem to be the fashion to spend money on experiments in education, not at least for private men to so, but the old custom may return, and it is a pity to discourage any enthusiasm that still exists. I will not hesitate to say that the school I have the honour to be headmaster of supplies a distinct want in Southampton. It is older than most of the newer public schools in England, and has educated some distinguished pupils and a great number of useful men in all professions and some trades. Such as it is it provides an education for the upper middle class of Southampton, and competes with no other school, for no other of the same kind exists. If a rate is levied from the benefit of which it is excluded it can hardly hope to survive a change of headmasters, and the best site in the town will be given up for building. The same result would follow, if Government or Local Authority were permitted to dictate a course of study. There are already numbers of examinations, competition and pass, army, navy, university,

public school, technical colleges, medical and legal, which boys have to be prepared for, and a school like this could not send in its boys for one general examination except one like the local examination,

Is there finally any advantage in making education uniform? Does not experience teach that though the new public schools like Cheltenham have been a success, yet most of the private schools are far better than what are called county schools. The truth is that a school, no more than a state, can be judged by size, and in some respects a small school of 60 or 70 boys has some peculiar advantages. The head of the house is also the head of the school, and has time at his disposal to attend to both sets of duties. Each boy is more likely to receive individual training in the schoolroom and playground. At a great school the weaker members have no particular duty to their schoolfellows; the elevens will be filled without their aid; there are plenty to fill school offices. It is different in a small school; every one must take his share, just as in a good small college. Thus each boy becomes self-reliant and entirely patriotic. Though evil, if it is introduced, is more deadly than in a larger atmosphere, it is far more easily excluded, and certain vices are quite absent.

If this is so, and if no public gain can follow the destruction of good private schools, then I think those whose fathers and grandfathers have established and carried them on, deserve rather gratitude than enmity, and should have the same support no more and no less than Parliament may decide to give to secondary schools in general.

X.—*Extension Lectures.*

(2.) At Southampton the boys from Banister Court and the grammar school regularly attend the more popular of the two extension courses, and very many of them have obtained certificates in past years. It would be a great pity to prevent masters sending their boys to hear men like Dr. Mill or Mr. Mackinder by heaping upon their shoulders Government examinations; as it is we often have to keep boys back owing to the pressure of competition or qualifying examinations. Every opportunity should be given to boys to think for themselves and even to escape from that routine of work that is so necessary for success, but not I think an absotute good, and these lectures give us just what we want.

IX.—*A Central Educational Board.*

A Board that would collect information, make reports, and give advice, would probably do good, but a Board that would control education in the way that primary education is controlled would do nothing but harm.

A central Board might be empowered to divert endowments, which are being wasted to other towns and districts, though I

doubt if local opinion would permit it. I do not think the constitution of the Board would matter much, if all interest were represented, and if it were not permitted to assume the direction of study by means of a code. Nothing should be done to force schools into any particular grove nor to interfere with the greatest variety of studies and arrangements by which boys are trained in different ways to fulfil their parts in life.

YORKSHIRE LADIES' COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.
Central Office, Carlton Court,
90, Albion Street, Leeds,
August 14, 1894.

I.—UNIVERSITIES.

1.—(*a.*) The Council are of opinion that the age of 19 is preferable to 18 for a girl to go to the university, but that (*b*) Competition for college scholarships should take place as soon as a girl has turned 18.

2.—The examination of schools by the universities has on the whole worked very satisfactorily up to this point, and is much to be preferred to the examination of individual pupils by the Oxford or Cambridge Local Examinations.

II.—SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND THEIR ARRANGEMENTS.

1.—It is most desirable that public provision should be made for a Preparatory Department in connexion with Secondary Schools, because one of the great difficulties with which Secondary Schools have to contend is the lack of training and discipline in the majority of the pupils on entering the schools. Owing to this many valuable years are lost.

2.—In large centres, but in large centres only, there is scope for a Second Grade as well as a First Grade School. In such cases it is desirable that the two schools should be under the same governing body, to secure proper grading and prevent competition.

3.—The system of competitive entrance scholarships has not proved altogether satisfactory, as it tends to prevent candidates obtaining scholarships while sufficiently young to profit by them.

4.—It is found in secondary schools, that scholarship-holders from elementary schools are at a disadvantage on account of their ignorance of history, geography, &c.

5.—It is thought that in upper secondary schools, where the pupils would presumably have opportunities of subsequent technical instruction, the technical instruction given should be limited to such manual training as is taught for its purely educational value.

6.—Technical instruction, limited as above described to training of the hand and eye, cannot begin too soon, and is valuable in every school.

7.—The best method of providing Secondary Education for rural districts seems to be to establish inexpensive boarding-houses in connexion with the central school in a central portion of the district.

III.—Leaving (Abiturienten) Examination.

1.—Leaving examinations are desirable as suggesting a standard of education and serving as a certificate of the pupils' attainments.

2.—They should be conducted by the universities, which supply varied types of examinations, to meet the requirements of different localities.

3.—The leaving examination should exempt the candidates from entrance or preliminary examinations, now required by the universities or professions.

IV.—Inspection and Examination.

Inspection is desirable when it is limited to securing suitable premises, equipment, apparatus and sanitation, also sufficiency and proper qualifications of staff.

An examination of the whole school is also desirable, but the inspection and examination should certainly not be conducted by the same person, or lie under the same authority.

V.—Endowments.

1.—Extended powers are wanted for the Charity Commissioners to apply obsolete and useless doles, gifts, &c., to educational purposes, more particularly to the founding of scholarships for advancing meritorious pupils and carrying on their studies either by a prolonged period at school or entrance to college. Girls should share equally with boys in these benefits.

VI.—Relation of Secondary and Elementary Schools.

1.—Higher Grade Elementary Schools are useful in a few large towns, for persons who cannot afford to pay any fee, and in order that the cleverest pupils from other elementary schools in the neighbourhood may be grouped together for more advanced teaching. Secondary schools of the second grade are more needed in towns where the majority of the population who would use such schools could afford a small fee.

2.—The effect on higher grade schools of science and art grants is unsatisfactory, because such grants tend to promote a superficial education for the purpose of pecuniary advantage.

3.—From 10 to 12 years of age.

VII.—Teachers.

1.—(*a.*) The general opinion of the Council is that training in an ordinary school, with constant practice in teaching, as well as in theory, before the university career is begun, is the best method.

2.—A thorough system of registration is necessary for the future, conducted either by the universities, or by special examiners appointed by the education departmant, in which university degrees or certificates should be accepted as proofs of satisfactory knowledge of subjects.

VIII.—District Authorities for Secondary Education.

5 —The universities and teachers should be represented in any district authority for Secondary Education.

6.—District or borough authorities who make grants to secondary schools should be represented on the governing bodies of those schools.

Precautions should be taken to secure such a restriction of the powers of any district or borough authority as would prevent the creation of new Secondary Schools, where efficient Secondary Schools already existed which could be adapted to the needs of the locality.

IX.—Central Educational Board.

(*a.*) A district board would be necessary, (but

(*c.*) subject to the control of the educational minister,)

(*b.*) to watch over the educational needs of the district, to guide the supply, and to see that due examinations were carried out that scholarships, where existing, were fairly allotted, and to act as a board of reference for the district on the one side and for the Education Minister on the other.

X.—Miscellaneous.

1. It is very desirable that there should be registration of schools, to ensure that such as are unsuitable should not be recognised, and that such as are efficient should not be over-looked.

2. University extension classes should be more systematic, so that they may serve the same purpose for secondary schools that continuation classes do for elementary schools.

4. Efficient proprietary and private schools should certainly not be disregarded in considering the question of founding new public schools, as such action would be (*a*) unjust to the proprietors of the schools, and (*b*) a waste of money.

Signed, on behalf of the Executive Committee of the Council,

ANNIE T. EDDISON.
Gen. Hon. Sec.

Yorkshire Ladies' Council of Education.
Central Office—Carlton Court,
90, Albion Street, Leeds.

Memorial to the Royal Commission on Secondary Education.

GENTLEMEN,

As your Commission has been appointed to consider the best method of providing and organising Secondary Education for the people of this country, we beg to submit to your attention views which we believe are largely shared by the wage-earning workers of this country with regard to Secondary Education. They begin to realise, as we do, how deeply education affects the well-being of all classes, but more especially of the large industrial class which constitutes the great majority of the people.

(I.) Secondary Education, in our view, must be defined, and therefore administered, as the education which follows and continues primary or elementary education.

Secondary schools, which provide this Secondary Education, should accordingly be so related to primary or elementary schools that their curriculum will proceed upon the course of instruction given in the latter, and be a continuation and development of it. As primary education is universally obligatory, and is provided for all children in the country in our elementary schools, we cannot think it necessary or just that another order of schools, under the title of secondary schools, shall be provided by the state to give this primary education to the children of a wealthier section of the community. The distinction of primary and secondary schools should be, in our opinion, strictly and solely *educational*, marking the successive stages of an educational curriculum; and not *social*, marking merely different grades of social rank.

We conceive that it would be highly beneficial to all classes of the community if their children were to attend a common school, and thus realise and enjoy in their youth common

interests and pursuits, as the children of one country. But if any parents will not avail themselves of the primary schools which the State has already provided for all children, we think that they should provide at their own cost this primary education which their children are obliged to receive; and that expensive socially-graded schools for the primary education of wealthier people should not be provided by the State under the misleading title of secondary schools.

(II.) We cannot but think that the immense endowments which now sustain most of the grammar and other secondary schools of the country would, if such endowments were wisely distributed and effectively applied, prove almost, if not wholly, adequate to the establishment and maintenance of a secondary school in every district of the country—if such a secondary school was rigorously confined to Secondary Education, and did not provide primary education as well. This secondary school in a district should be connected with and adjusted to the primary schools of that district, so that children could pass on from the one to the other.

As these endowments, which at present sustain the grammar and other secondary schools of the country, were in most cases originally bequeathed for the education of poor children, we hope the principle will be universally adopted, which has been generally enforced by the Endowed School Commissioners, and more lately by the Charity Commissioners, in new schemes which they have approved for the reorganisation of endowed schools, viz.:—that exhibitions be open in the secondary school of each district to poor children in that district who have shown conspicuous ability during their attendance at the elementary school, and that these exhibitions be sufficient not only to pay the fees of the secondary school, but also to aid in maintaining those gifted scholars during their attendance at it. We believe that it is of great importance to the industrial and intellectual interests of the country that every child of special gifts should have an opportunity of cultivating and exercising these gifts for the benefit of the country.

(III.) Since we regard Secondary Education to be that which follows and continues the primary education of the elementary school, and is intended to make the earlier instruction more useful and fruitful in the subsequent life of the scholar, we very specially urge upon your Commission that such Secondary Education should be available for all the children of the country, and not only for the children of the middle and upper classes; as will be the case if Secondary Education be limited to secondary *day* schools. After 14 years of age, at the latest, the children of the wage-earning classes must go to work in the daytime. For them, therefore, the Secondary Education, which they require and deserve as much as the children of the wealthier classes, must be given in secondary *evening* schools.

We desire, therefore, that in considering this large question of Secondary Education for the whole people, you will not ignore the claims and necessities of the wage-earning classes, which form the bulk of our population.

Such secondary *evening* schools should be provided for all those who have completed the primary course of instruction in the day or evening elementary schools; and should be, in our opinion, like the day elementary schools, of two orders—(i.) Higher grade; (ii.) Ordinary. In the former, opportunity should be given to scholars who have passed the higher standards in the day schools to continue their education so as to fit themselves to be scientifically-trained workmen, and to receive the fuller equipment and influence of such Secondary Education in preparation for the duties and enjoyments of life. The *ordinary* secondary schools should give such lessons to our youth, who have not passed the higher standards, as they are able to receive, and in such a manner as to attract and profit them, so as to make them better workmen and better men than they would otherwise be. In both grades of evening secondary schools it will be even more necessary than in day secondary schools to care for the physical, and social, and emotional elements of education, as well as the intellectual. The polytechnic institutes and the social institutes now being established in London fulfil the requirements respectively of those two grades of evening secondary schools. And we trust that you may not overlook in your inquiries and your report what we consider this very important department of Secondary Education, which concerns the largest section of the community.

(IV.) The Secondary Education of the working classes must to a large extent be technical and manual. The first necessity for them and for the industries of the country is that they should be skilful and expert workmen and workwomen. We hope, accordingly, that the large sum of money divided at present under the Local Taxation Act of 1891 among the county councils of the country, and which they are authorised to devote to technical and manual instruction, may become permanently available for this purpose, and be wholly appropriated to it.

We conceive that the very words of the Act which limits the application of this money, if used for educational purposes, to technical and manual instruction show that it should be chiefly applied to the technical and manual instruction of those who will be engaged through their life in *manual* work, and whose work requires, for its highest excellence, *technical* knowledge and skill. Further, these men and women form the bulk of the people; and what has been given for the good of the people must in equity be *in largest measure* devoted to them.

Whilst, therefore, we willingly allow that a portion of it should be granted to day secondary schools, so as to aid the instruction in them of the children of our middle and upper classes in technical science and in manual work, we urge that the sum so devoted shall be strictly limited, and that this large fund be

principally expended in the technical and manual instruction of those who are to earn their livelihood by the skilful use of their hands—in day and evening *elementary* schools, for scholars who are not receiving instruction in "standard" subjects, and in *secondary* evening schools.

(Signed) HENRY BROADHURST, M.P.
GEORGE HOWELL, M.P.
COUNCILLOR REUBEN DAVIS, President, Nottingham and District Trades' Council.
JOHN JEPSON, Secretary, Nottingham and District Trades' Council.
(Representing 30,000 members.)
R. W. WALTERS, President, Manchester and Salford Trades' and Labour Council.
H. PRESTON, Treasurer, Manchester and Salford Trades' and Labour Council.
GEO. D. KELLEY, Secretary, Manchester and Salford Trades' and Labour Council.
(Representing 25,000 members.)
JEREMIAH WOOLLEY, President, Preston Trades' Council.
LUKE PARK, Secretary, Preston Trades' Council.
(Representing 8,000 members.)
JAMES MANN, President, Dundee and District United Trades' and Labour Council.
DAVID LIDDELL, Vice-President, Dundee and District United Trades' and Labour Council.
JAMES REID, Treasurer, Dundee and District United Trades' and Labour Council.
P. REID, Secretary, Dundee and District United Trades' and Labour Council.
JOHN MACKAY, Member of Executive for ditto.
GEO. WALKER, Member of Executive for ditto.
(Representing 6,000 organised workers.)
COUNCILLOR JONAS W. CROSSLAND, J.P., President, Halifax and District Trades' and Labour Council.
ALD. JAMES TATTERSALL, Vice-President, Halifax and District Trades' and Labour Council.
ARTHUR TAYLOR, Secretary, Halifax and District Trades' and Labour Council.
JAMES PARKER, Financial Secretary, Halifax and District Trades' and Labour Council.
(Representing 4,000 members.)
W. SISSLING, President, Long Eaton and District Trades' Council.
E. J. BONSALL, Secretary, Long Eaton and District Trades' Council.
(Representing 600 members.)

S. BUTLER, J.P., Chairman, Long Eaton Urban Council.
GEORGE BASTARD, Chairman, Midland Section Co-operative Union, Limited.
DUNCAN MCINNES, Secretary, Midland Section Co-operative Union, Limited.
W. J. DOUSE, Treasurer, Nottingham Co-operative Society, and Member of Midland Board of Co-operative Union.
JOSEPH BUCKLEY, Chairman, Oldham Industrial Co-operative Society's Educational Committee.
GEO. WM. GOLLEDGE, Secretary, Doncaster Mutual Co-operative and Industrial Society.
DUNCAN MCINNES, Secretary, Lincoln Equitable Co-operative and Industrial Society.
THOMAS BUTLER, Secretary, Wellingboro' Co-operative Society.
HARRY BAILEY CLARKE, President, Huntingdon Industrial Co-operative Society.
JOHN COLLINS, President, Hucknall Torkard Co-operative Society.
WILLIAM ADEY LOWERY, Hetton Downs Amicable Industrial Society.
ABR. PARK, J.P., President of the Lancashire and neighbouring counties P.S.A. Societies, and President of Ashton-under-Lyne P.S.A. Society.
HENRY SUGDEN, President, P.S.A. Brighouse.
E. W. WILLIAMS, Secretary, „ „
H. J. TURNER, „ „ „
CLAYTON WALKER, Secretary, Nottingham and District Federation of P.S.A. Classes.

SAMUEL BRADBURY,
EDWIN COPE,
WILLIAM FLINT, Chairman.
S. ARTHUR GITTINS, Vice-Chairman,
GEO. HOYES,
JOHN KEYWOOD,
THOMAS KIMBER,
GEO. MASSEY,
JOHN PINDER,
JAMES POWELL,
W. H. WHEATCROFT,
CHARLES WHITE,
} Central Committee of Managers of Nottingham Board Continuation Schools.

HENRY POPHAM, Secretary to Committee.

COUNTY COUNCIL EDUCATION GRANTS AND EVENING CONTINUATION SCHOOLS.

Memorial by the Working Men Managers of the Nottingham School Board's Evening Continuation Schools to Members of Parliament, Trades' Councils, and others.

The evening school managers appointed by the Nottingham School Board, most of them working men, who have been entrusted by the School Board with a special responsibility in regard to the continuous practical education of the young people of the town, have been led by their position to see the great importance of higher—especially technical—education for the industrial classes in the country. They have looked, accordingly, with much interest and concern to the administration of the Technical Instruction Acts, and the application by the county councils and county boroughs of the funds accruing under the Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act, 1890; which money has been generally appropriated to educational purposes.

In the town of Nottingham the evening school managers have recently applied to the committee of the University College to give a number of scholarships to young people who have attended the evening schools, in order that they may share in the benefits to be derived from the technical education grants. The managers are pleased to say the justice of their claim has already been acknowledged by the committee of the University College, who have granted a number of scholarships for students attending the continuation schools.

They are glad to learn that elsewhere—especially by aiding evening continuation schools—county councils have given a small portion of the large sums which they spend on technical education for the benefit of the industrial classes. That class, however, forms the great majority of the people, and should share more largely in the vast sums devoted by county councils to technical and Secondary Education.

The managers have learned with great satisfaction of the appointment of a Royal Commission to consider the present condition of Secondary Education in England.

Certain facts have been laid before the managers which, taken together with their experiences in this town, lead them to

believe that the working classes have not received anything like their due share in the county council education grants, and that there are certain tendencies at work which may direct these large sums of money chiefly to the Secondary Education of those who do not so much need assistance.

They, therefore, pray that you will lay before the Royal Commission on Secondary Education their views on this important subject; and do your utmost to secure for their sons and daughters all possible advantages of the proposed Secondary Education scheme, under conditions that are alone possible to them; and that they may fully share in all moneys applied by county councils to technical education.

The managers feel they cannot too strongly express their conviction that only in the evening continuation schools can the great majority of the young people of this country receive a secondary education. On this account they plead with you that you will earnestly consider this matter; and do your utmost to protect the best interests of the people, which are bound up with higher—especially technical—education.

That the evening continuation schools may receive the encouragement and advancement which they justly merit; and that they may speedily be brought to a high state of practical usefulness to the young people of our country, is the earnest desire of the 100 local managers of the Nottingham Board's continuation schools, on whose behalf we subscribe ourselves.

Yours most respectfully,

Central Committee of Evening School Managers.

SAMUEL BRADBURY,
EDWIN COPE,
WILLIAM FLINT, Chairman.
S. ARTHUR GITTINS, Vice-Chairman.
GEO. HOYES,
THOMAS KIMBER,
GEO. MASSEY,
JOHN PINDER,
JAMES POWELL,
HY. SANDERSON,
W. H. WHEATCROFT,
CHARLES WHITE,

HENRY POPHAM, Organizing Superintendent of Evening School Management

School Board Offices,
Victoria Street, Nottingham,
June, 1894.

Memorial of Seventeen Private School Teachers.

University Club for Ladies,
47, Maddox Street, W.,
September 30, 1894.

SIR,

WE are sending you the memorial to the Royal Commission on Secondary Education, of which we informed you some time ago, and which you said the Commission wished to receive on October 1st.

It occurs to us that the Commissioners may be interested in hearing from us some of the reasons which have weighed with those who refused to sign. They seem to be mainly these:—

1. Some, perhaps the greatest number, think that vested interests do give a claim to compensation, and they cannot bring themselves to say that they emphatically repudiate such a claim.
2. A few object to putting themselves definitely in opposition to the Private Schools' Association, as they think it is doing good work, though they do not quite approve of its action in this matter, and much prefer the terms of our memorial to those promoted by the Private Schools' Association.
3. In one or two cases, there was a feeling that individual initiative and a chance of developing originality are two extremely important things that we ought at all costs to preserve; that these are now found in private schools; that under any system of Government control they would most likely be sacrificed; and that the danger is so imminent and so grave, that we ought not to refuse to work with any opposition, even though based on low motives, that may help to avert it.
4. There was also very frequently a vague feeling that private schools have a right to be free from interference of any kind, and that in order to secure this, it is best to leave things as they are.

We are sorry not to have more signatures, but in the present condition of the profession of private school-keeping, when anyone, capable or incapable, is free to start a school, we cannot help feeling glad that there are as many as 12 who can heartily endorse the terms of our memorial, besides the many who sympathise with it, but are too vague to venture on any definite committal of themselves.

We are, &c.

(Signed) MARY R. LACEY.
ANNIE TOWNSEND.

MEMORIAL TO THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON SECONDARY EDUCATION.

"The Private Schools' Association is opposing the Secondary Education Bill in its present form, on the ground that it is unjust to private schools. It claims to have two objects in view, (1) to promote the interests of education by securing to schools of this kind their due place in our educational system; (2) to defend the interests of their proprietors on the ground of the rights of property.

"We believe that private schools can do good work, and we are anxious to secure the recognition of this fact by those who will have the responsibility of reorganising English education; but we must protest strongly against the intrusion into this question of any talk about the rights of property. We wish it to be discussed solely on its merits: if we cannot show that private schools serve the public interest, we cannot justify their continued existence, and we emphatically repudiate any claim to consideration on the ground of vested interests.

"In the absence of an organised system of education, much has of necessity been done by voluntary effort. We believe that many of those who have taken the lead in these efforts have been inspired by the desire to do good public service, and we protest against the stigma cast upon them and us by men and women who are avowedly moved by considerations of private interest as well as of public advantage."

ANNIE TOWNSEND, B.A., late Scholar of Newnham College, Camb., Oakhurst, Anerley, S.E.
MARY R. LACEY, late Student of Somerville Hall, Oxford; Oxford University Extension Lecturer; Headmistress of the Grove School for Girls, Highgate.
CHARLOTTE E. BISBEE,
S. Michael's Avenue School.
EUPHEMIA HINTON,
Clare House School.
LOUISA I. TALLANT,
Eastgate School, Northampton.
EDITH BOYLE,
Castle Hall School, Northampton.
S. ISOBEL M. WILSON,
Wembdon House School, Northampton.
HELEN M. G. WILSON,
Wembdon House School, Northampton.
L. A. LAW, L.L.A.,
Headmistress, Rotherham High School for Girls.
HELEN BAYES,
Polam Hall, Darlington.
RACHEL B. LOCKWOOD,
Polam Hall, Darlington.
I. H. PAYNE, B.A. (Lond.),
CAROLINE EWEN,
Feldaping, Red Hill.
MARY FREDERICA EWEN,
22, Rotton Park Road, Edgbaston, Birmingham.
ROSA JANE EWEN, L.L.A.,
22, Rotton Park Road, Edgbaston, Birmingham.
RACHEL BARFORD,
Chertsey House, Red Hill.
MARIAN ARCHER (Senior Optime),
Chertsey House, Red Hill.

Memorial from the Trustees of the Devon County School to the Royal Commissioners on Secondary Education.

We, the undersigned, Trustees of the Devon County School, desire to be permitted to lay before the Royal Commission on Secondary Education our reasons for hoping that in any general plan for filling up the interval between elementary education and that given in the public schools immediately connected with the universities, full consideration will be given to the importance of securing for the middle classes a full proportion of public boarding schools.

Without any wish to depreciate the value of day schools, we would urge that they alone cannot meet the requirements and expectations of English parents, who desire for their children something more than accurate instruction; and as there has prevailed an impression that a good boarding school must be an expensive luxury, we are anxious to draw attention to the following facts and figures.

The Devon County School at West Buckland was undertaken in the year 1858, under the special sanction and encouragement of the late Earl Fortescue, Lord Lieutenant of Devon, as an experiment. The object was to establish a school which, while self-supporting, should be brought within the reach of parents of quite moderate means, through careful economy both of capital outlay and of boarding expenditure. At the same time, it was hoped that the tuition might be kept up to a standard that would attract boys from a distance.

The success of the experiment was decisive, both as to the limits within which the outlay of capital and the charges to parents might be kept without detriment to the efficiency of the school, and also as to the range of studies which might honestly and honourably be there undertaken.

For 20 years (1858 to 1878) the progress of the school was marked by a gradual and uninterrupted rise in numbers. Beginning in a farmhouse with a mere nucleus of a master and a few boarders the school showed at once that it had in its originating principles, and in the master who had undertaken to give effect to them, an energy of life and growth; and also that it was meeting a real and felt want of parents and of the country. Permanent buildings were very soon required for 100 boarders, and these again to be enlarged, and in the year 1876 there were 150 boarders in residence. It is true that the disastrous agricultural year 1879, combined with other general

causes, such as the completion of other schools, which the success of the County School had stimulated, and especially the effect which the Act of 1870 was producing in the improvement of the elementary day schools, led to a check in the school's progress, and to a fall in its numbers. But that it has retained its original vigour and great promise of usefulness is best proved by the accompanying prospectus and the observations of one of our number (the Bishop of London) on revisiting the school at the last prize day.

Whatever may be the future fortune and work of the school, its good fortune and good work as a pioneer in the field of secondary education has been to prove that public boarding schools ought to hold, and may easily be enabled to take, a strong place in the intermediate education of England. The Devon County School has proved that an outlay of capital not exceeding 100*l.* per boarder will provide well-selected sites, excellent buildings, and all requisite equipment. It has also proved that a revenue of 31*l.* per boarder from parents, or scholarships, will suffice in schools planned for 150 to 200 boarders to provide every reasonable requisite, both for board and tuition, and also for interest on the capital.

Still more important is the proof, which the Devon County School has given, that such a boarding school in proportion to the extent to which it can retain the element of independence and self-support is admirably adapted to mitigate, if not solve altogether, those social and religious difficulties which tend to perpetuate by education hereditary alienations. In the Devon County School the religious and Christian character of the education was not merely taken for granted, but was asserted in a marked way by the late Earl Fortescue's endowments of a chaplaincy. Equally from the first the full right of the parent to express his wishes, and to have those wishes treated with the greatest respect and loyalty by the headmaster, was recognised. And the history of the school under both the headmasters who have had charge of it has, we believe, proved that the religious difficulty has been solved by the absence of all complaint. The same may be said of social difficulties. Boys of almost every social grade, including those who have won the free scholarships, which have for several years been offered to pupils from elementary schools, and those, whose parents and themselves have held or are holding good positions in the army or navy or professions, have mingled in fair proportion with the sons of farmers and tradesmen, for whom more especially the school was founded. And the result has been an affection and enthusiasm for their school not of a less generous quality than that which animates those who have had the privilege of passing through Winchester or Rugby. So far as such enthusiasm results from personal respect and gratitude of the pupil for his teacher, day schools may, of course, share largely in the credit of producing it. But it is only in the boarding school, and

through its transmitted traditions, that a stamp of public spirited generosity can be put upon the character of successive generations. And this stamp it is of the highest importance that all teachers should receive in their own school life. Hence the special value, we submit, of the proofs offered, that so far from public boarding schools, which alone give this stamp, being expensive luxuries, they may really be encouraged at the least possible expenditure of public money. In these schools the cost of the board can be shown to be little, if at all, more than that of a boy living at home, where everything is subordinated to their best interests; then the cost of tuition is itself regulated, as in day schools, by the number of pupils, and quite as great, if not greater, assistance can be given by endowments or public grants to general or special teaching, as in day schools.

Several similar county schools have been started since the Devon County School began its experiment. Some of them by marked success, others by fluctuating fortune, and some even by their failure, have illustrated the demand that exists for this kind of school, and also the difficulties that lie in the way of meeting it. But we may, in particular, draw the attention of the Royal Commission to the North-Eastern County School at Barnard Castle, in which the principles here advocated have been applied to a group of three contiguous counties—Northumberland, Durham, and the North Riding. In this school there are 250 boarders, and the charge to parents is 31*l.* per annum. The parents, in the year 1894, were charged fees to the amount of 7,712*l.*, and when the whole cost of board and tuition had been accounted for there was a surplus of 744*l.* carried to a profit and loss account.

As an instance of the prospect there may be of future endowments gathering spontaneously round such schools, when once they have been established, and their usefulness approved, we may mention that we have just had the pleasure of acknowledging a legacy of 1,000*l.*, bequeathed to the Devon County School by the widow of an eminent medical man, who had been highly esteemed in North Devon, and whose name and memory she thus wished to connect with the school by founding a scholarship.

F. LONDIN:
FORTESCUE.
J. L. BRERETON (Prebendary).
W. LEWIS STUCLEY.
W. A. SANFORD.
ROBARTES.
EBRINGTON.
C. T. D. ACLAND.

} I have been authorised by every Trustee whose name I have appended to do so
FORTESCUE.

W. W. KARSLAKE.—I have been authorised to append this signature, F. LONDIN:

Note on the Dick Bequest.*

James Dick, Esquire, of Finsbury Square, London, and a native of the burgh of Forres, Morayshire, died in 1828, bequeathing nearly his whole fortune for the maintenance and assistance of "the Country Parochial Schoolmasters" in his native county of Elgin or Moray, and in the neighbouring counties of Banff and Aberdeen.

The nett annual income of the bequest has been as high as 5,489*l.*; in 1889 it amounted to 3,785*l.*

The testator, after stating his object to be the formation of a fund to add to the "very trifling salaries" of the country parochial schoolmasters, desired that the following rules should be observed in its distribution.

(1.) That the country parochial schoolmasters in the counties of Aberdeen, Banff and Moray, exclusive of the royal burghs, should alone be entitled to the benefit of the fund.

(2.) That the income should be applied so as in no manner to relieve the heritors, or others, from their legal obligations to support parochial schoolmasters, or to diminish the extent of such support, or to interfere with the control of the masters or of the schools by the proper authorities.

(3.) That the trustees should have discretion to apply the income in such manner as seemed most likely to "encourage active schoolmasters, and gradually to "elevate the literary character of the parochial school-"masters and schools aforesaid." And he particularly recommended the trustees to pay great attention to the qualifications and diligence of the masters for and in superintending the education of students at the university during the intervals between the sessions, and in preparing youths for entrance to the university, "taking care at the same time that the common "branches of education are properly attended to at the "said parochial schools."

The bequest is now regulated by a scheme framed by the Educational Endowments Commission and approved in 1890. The principal educational provisions are to the following effect:—

I. Schools now on Bequest.

1. By clause 25, teachers benefiting by the bequest who were appointed to office prior to 1873 are secured in an annual payment, amounting to the average received by them during the six years prior to April 1890; provided that they are efficient, and that due attention is paid to the higher subjects—the

* The following account of the Dick Bequest is summarised or extracted from the report to the trustees of the bequest made in the year 1890, by Professor S. S. Laurie, A.M., LL.D.

payment being subject to "deduction" should they cease to "pay due attention to the higher subjects."

2. By clause 26, teachers appointed subsequently to 1873 are entitled to payment of 15*l.*, provided they are "efficient" and "pay due attention to the higher subjects," and, in addition, they will receive capitation grants for every child receiving efficient instruction in the higher subjects—the maximum grant to be 50*l.* in all.

II. New Cases.

1. *Parochial or Public Schools.*—By clause 27, grants from the Trustees are to be in future, as vacancies in schools occur, paid to the school boards on condition that the teacher be a university graduate, and that the teaching staff shall be sufficient to enable the principal master to give time to the higher branches. The grants are (by clause 28) to be similar to those fixed in clause 26, and paid on similar conditions as to efficiency, &c.

2. *Central Public Schools.*—By clause 29, the governors are (after the other purposes of the bequest have received due effect) empowered to make special grants to school boards of not less than 60*l.*, and not more than 200*l.* annually, to assist certain selected centres in developing the higher department of their schools. The amount of the grant is to be determined after taking into account certain considerations, among which are the extent to *which the grant is met by local rates, subscriptions or donations,* the number of scholars in the more advanced stages of Latin, Greek, and mathematics, the extent to which efficient instruction is given in mechanical drawing and science subjects, the adequacy of the staff.

[*Capitation grants* are not made applicable to these central schools.]

Note 1.—The only provisions which operate to prevent grants from relieving the rates are contained (*a*) in clause 26, in which it is provided that the schoolmaster's emoluments shall not be less than those at present provided for him; (*b*) sub-section 3 of clause 27, which says "that the grant shall not be applied in relief of any expenditure which the school board might reasonably be expected to incur out of the school fund.

Note 2.—The efficiency, etc., of the schools may be ascertained "by examination *or* otherwise" (clauses 25 and 26); and "in such way as to the Governors may seem best" (clause 28).

Note 3.—"Higher subjects" are not defined.

In the three counties of Aberdeen, Banff, and Moray, outside the county towns, there are 123 civil parishes, and there are also (A.D. 1890) 123 parochial schools participating in the bequest. When parishes have been divided, *quoad sacra* there are sometimes two schools within the limits of the old civil parish, while, again, there are a few civil parishes which, for

various reasons, have not taken advantage of the bequest. The number of the schools on the bequest is less than it was in 1872 by twelve schools, and shows signs of decreasing. The cause of the decrease is the unwillingness of a few of the less enlightened school boards to comply with the conditions laid down by the bequest. The general result, however, is that there is no part of the three counties whose residents are not within sufficiently easy reach of a school in which the higher instruction may be obtained.

The school boards have, with very few exceptions, met in the most liberal way the requirements of the Act of 1872 as to schoolhouses. These are good and ample. The apparatus for teaching is also, speaking generally, adequate The dwelling-houses, with two or three exceptions, are good, such houses as any graduate-teacher may be well content to inhabit.

The emoluments of the teachers, apart from the bequest, which yields an addition of from 20*l.* to 45*l.*, according to merit, average 140*l.* per annum, in addition to a house. There are 31 teachers who have more than 150*l.* a year, apart from the bequest, and a house. The average payment from the bequest was (in 1889) 30*l* 8*s.* 2*d.*

Of the 123 teachers 112 are graduates of an university, and have further passed the Dick Bequest examination. Two of them have been honoured by their universities with the degree of LL.D.

The emoluments, it will be seen, apart from the bequest, are only slightly in excess of those of other rural schools in the more fertile districts of Scotland, and the question naturally arises, How do those parishes secure the services of men of exceptionally high qualification? The answer is to be found chiefly in this, that the Dick Bequest has so fostered the higher education in parochial schools, as to send larger numbers of students to the university of Aberdeen from rural districts than could in ordinary circumstances have been sent, and that the university, having educated these men, thus produces a supply of graduates who are well content to return into the country districts and hold the office of a public schoolmaster. Had there been no university easily accessible, the Dick Bequest would have accomplished little. It will be also admitted that the mere fact that the schools they hold are known as "Dick Bequest" schools, has operated to make the position and status of the parochial schoolmasters more attractive in the north-east than elsewhere. It has been a brevet of rank. These teachers are all men of high character, of good ability, and sound education, men with whom any "gentleman and scholar" can sit down and converse on terms of equality. They are, with singularly few exceptions, devoted to their work, and have conferred and are conferring incalculable benefits on the children of the three counties.

Another question will naturally be put by those familiar with education in less favoured places—How do these men manage

to do so much more and higher work than the majority of teachers elsewhere? The answer is that the boards have, in very many cases, shown their intelligence by allowing one pupil teacher in excess of the Code requirements, or, where a pupil-teacher would have sufficed, they have appointed a female certificated assistant. Thus, at an additional expenditure of from 15*l.* to 30*l.* per annum, the board has come to the help of the master. In such graded schools as Keith, Dufftown, Huntly, and Fraserburgh, the headmaster is practically set free for the higher subjects alone. These schools are technically parochial or "public" schools, but with a higher or "secondary department. This separate department would be classified as a high school of the third grade, if one were to classify the high schools of Scotland as they are sometimes classified abroad.

But in very many schools the master has only the usual amount of assistance, and, where this is the case, it is impossible for him to fulfil the requirements of the Code, during the ordinary school day, and at the same time teach more than the "first stage"* of Latin, Mathematics, French, etc. But so imbued are the masters—even those in this position as to staff—with the true spirit of their profession, that they are always ready to meet their advanced boys and girls before and after the regular school-hours. Boys nearing the university stage will frequently, too, be welcomed by the master at his house in the evening, there to continue their reading. And so intimate is the connection subsisting between the country school and the university that these same boys, after having been a year at the university (and even in some cases two years), are to be found during the summer sitting in a corner of the school-house by themselves preparing for next session's work under the master's direction. In the remote, poor, and elevated village of Tomantoul, "Liddell and Scott" is as familiar a sight to the pupils spelling their way through an elementary English book, as it is to the gilded youth of Eton or Harrow. There, too, girls and boys of the poorest classes have more than once passed during my visit from the perusal of Shakespeare to Racine, from Racine to Virgil, and from Virgil to Euripides.

It will be seen, accordingly, that this higher instruction is not a question of time, staff, and opportunity alone. All over Scotland a slight excess of staff over the Code requirements is common. It is a question of the *class* of teachers employed. Round this one consideration, indeed, all educational questions everywhere centre. A graduate who has himself shown the solid qualities necessary for working his way up from a humble social grade to the position he holds is not an ordinary graduate. In the deepest and highest sense of the word he is an "Honours' man." He brings with him to his work a moral and intellectual force which it is difficult to over-estimate. Through this mental

* Latin accidence; 15 propositions of Euclid and the beginnings of Algebra; French accidence.

force it is that he is enabled to predispose the minds of his pupils for advanced instruction; through this he is able to accomplish more, with very raw material, in a brief time daily, than a less educated and intellectual man could possibly accomplish even with the best intentions: his resources are not so soon exhausted.

Then, as to the boys and girls. They are studying the higher branches because they *wish* to study them. The law of natural selection has been going on, and they are the elect minds of the school. Their learning is with them a very serious business. Again and again has it been my lot to examine classes not only in Latin, Greek and Mathematics, but also in Shakespeare and Milton, the pupils of which brought to their literary work a brightness of eye, an eagerness of intelligence, and a readiness to appreciate linguistic expression and æsthetic beauties, which have made the apparently prosaic work of going from school to school refreshing in a high degree, and worth any expenditure of labour. And all this the work of one quiet man with numerous classes to attend to, and no consciousness that he is doing anything extraordinary! This is education. Many have doubted what a good education can accomplish for the people; no one can spend an hour or two in one of the best of these schools and retain the doubt.

That class of parochial-minded politicians who grudge salaries which may attract able men, will find in the north-east that such men do much more than merely teach the school. The influence of a high-class elementary schoolmaster is felt through the whole district. In one parish he is the soul of the volunteer movement, in another of a literary, in a third of a choral, society. He is looked up to as an educational representative and a social force, and not merely as a school teacher.

The Endowed Schools and Hospitals Commission (Scotland), in the report issued in 1875, say of the teachers aided by the Dick Bequest:

"They are all university men, and, with very few exceptions, graduates in arts; a considerable proportion of them also are licentiates in theology; and the qualification required for sharing in this bequest is said to be higher than the M.A. degree of Aberdeen. Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools for the district, Dr. Kerr, being asked, 'Do you think the effect of the [Dick 'and Milne] Bequests has been to provide for these counties 'teachers of a higher standard of educational acquirements?' replies, 'There is nothing more certain than that. Out of the '150 teachers in Aberdeen, Banff, and Moray, at least 130 are 'Masters of Arts. You will find that nowhere else in Scotland. '. . . Elsewhere in Scotland you will not find one in fifty.'

"The literary character of the schools, too, has been raised. 'There are comparatively few schools,' says Dr. Kerr, 'in 'Aberdeen, Banff, and Moray, in which the higher branches 'are not well taught. Latin is taught in almost all; Greek in 'a considerable number, and in some very well; and the parish

'schoolmaster does, in point of fact, train his boys up to the 'point of going straight to the university. In many cases the 'boy takes a quarter or half a year in the Old Town Grammar 'School or in the New Town Grammar School, to give point 'and direction to his work before entering on the bursary 'competition in Aberdeen; but a great many go straight from 'the parish school to the university, and carry off bursaries. 'At all events the foundation, the solid work, has been done in 'the parish school.'

"There has been a marked increase," the Commissioners go on to say, "in the proportion of pupils learning the higher branches. Since 1833 the percentage of those learning Latin has risen from 4·6 to 7·6; Greek, 0·7 to 1·5; Mathematics, 2·6 to 4.5; and French, which 40 years ago was hardly taught at all, is now learned by 2·3 per cent. Nor does this higher teaching by parish schoolmasters prevent their giving equal attention to the elementary subjects. 'I believe that was the 'case,' says Dr. Kerr, 'before Government grants came in; but 'as a considerable portion of their income depends on the 'receipt of the Government grant, and as that provides 'thoroughly for the efficiency of the lower branches, I have 'no hesitation in saying that the parish schools of Aberdeen, 'Banff, and Moray will, even in the lower branches, compete 'with any other schools in the country.'

"The acknowledged excellence of the schools, especially in the higher subjects, is due no doubt partly to their close connexion with the university of Aberdeen by numerous bursaries, as well as by these graduate teachers. But, without the improved salaries, few graduates would have cared to serve in country parish schools; and without such teachers the bursaries would hardly bring up country lads sufficiently prepared to attend the university classes.

"Thus the steady flow of youthful ability from the country schools in this part of Scotland to the university, and from the university to the learned professions, including that of parish schoolmaster, is in great measure owing to the bounty of Mr. Dick, and to the judicious administration of this endowment."

Within the ten years ending 31st December 1888, 209 boys went *direct* from the parish schools to the universities, and 156 went to the universities after a brief stay of from three to nine months at a secondary school—in all 365; in other words, an average of more than 36 per annum from 122 schools scattered over the three counties.

But this university record, satisfactory as it is, is only a partial indication of the work done by the parochial schools; for some are not included who went forward to the medical preliminary, a much easier examination, however, than the arts bursary examination. Moreover, times have changed since the only pathway from the plough or the forge to occupations requiring higher qualifications was the university. The examinations for admission as apothecaries' apprentices (the pharmaceutical

examination), the "university local" examinations (junior and senior), the law agents' examination, the examination for admission to training colleges (this chiefly taken advantage of by girls), and for the L.L.A. of St. Andrews University, have all been sought, and passed by pupils direct from the parochial schools. How does it stand with these numerous outlets for clever boys and girls?

Pharmaceutical examination - - -	121
University junior local - - -	116
„ senior „ - - -	47
Law agent's examination - - - -	66
Training college examination - - -	188
L.L.A., St. Andrews - - - -	8
Total - -	546

Or an average of about 50·5 per annum. That is to say, including the university examination, an average of 86·5 boys and girls are annually passed on from the rural schools to the more skilled occupations and to the professions.

FORM prepared for use of ASSISTANT COMMISSIONERS OF THE CHARITY COMMISSION for the purpose of the INSPECTION of ENDOWMENTS for which SCHEMES have been made under the ENDOWED SCHOOLS ACTS,

Date of Scheme _____.

Name of Endowment _____.

Date of subsequent amendments of Scheme. } _____

Place _____.

Date of visit of Assistant Commissioner _____.

County _____

1. Situation, population and industries of place.

2. Number of scholars, condition of school, and income from endowment at date of scheme.

3. Condition of property of the charity.

4. Financial arrangements :—

(*a.*) Transmission and publication of accounts.

(*b.*) Temporary provisions.

(*c.*) Amounts set apart for non-educational purposes.

(*d.*) For maintenance or other purposes in elementary schools.

(*e.*) Replacement of capital; repairs and improvements fund; superannuation fund for teachers; surplus.

(*f.*) Observations on accounts.

5. School site and buildings.

6. Governing body:—

(*a.*) Names of governors, showing capacity in which each serves and when term of office expires (those present at inspection marked *).

(*b.*) Have governors been regularly appointed? Any observations on working of election provisions. Any expenses incurred in respect of the appointments.

(*c.*) Attendance of governors:—

(i.) Ex-officio.

(ii.) Representative.

(iii.) Co-optative.

(*d.*) Arrangements of the governors for the discharge of business under common form clauses of the scheme. Any observations on working of these clauses.

7. Educational arrangements staff:—

(*a.*) Head master—date of appointment, qualifications, family, fixed stipend, capitation payments, total emoluments.

(*b.*) Assistant masters:—

(i.) Regular—dates of appointment, qualifications, and emoluments.

(ii.) Occasional or visiting:—

Opinion as to adequacy of staff.

8. Amount of entrance, tuition, and boarding fees charged in the school.

Any extra charges, *e.g.*, for stationery, school games, &c.

9. Present number of scholars in attendance, distinguishing boarders from day scholars,

ages, residence, and occupation of parents.

Recent increase or decrease in number of scholars.

10. Character of instruction given in the school.

(*a.*) Religious :—

Working of conscience clause—day boys and boarders.

(*b.*) Secular :—

Whether in accordance with the scheme as to subjects prescribed ?

Any such subject not taught, and why ?

Whether suitable to the grade of school contemplated ?

If extra fee for any subject, what is the result ?

How is school classified ?

Have the governors made any regulations for the admission examination, and how is it graduated according to the age of the scholars ?

11. Character and result of examinations, internal and external. If directed by scheme, has report been sent to the Commissioners ?

Number of file containing examiner's reports ?

Does head master make annual report to governors ?

12. Number and classes of scholarships or exhibitions held in the school.

Character and working of examinations for them, specially for scholars from public elementary schools.

Number of exhibitioners from the school, and where exhibitions are held.

Particulars as to after career of scholars and exhibitioners.

13. Is there (*a.*) any circumstance specially creditable to the school which the governors or head master may desire to mention?

(*b.*) Any complaint which they wish to make?

(*c.*) How is the school regarded in the neighbourhood?
Any competing schools?

14. (*a.*) Any failure to carry into effect provisions of the scheme?

Circumstances alleged by governing body as cause of failure or disregard.

(*b.*) What steps required in order that the practice may in future conform to the law?

15. Is any amendment of the scheme (*a*) desired by the governing body or other persons interested? Or,

(*b*) proper to be made.

16. Any other remark in this case.

Answers to General Circular from British Colonies, the United States of America, and Foreign Countries.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

THE BRITISH COLONIES.

Colony.	Subject.	Page.
CANADA:—		
Ontario - -	(1.) Replies received from Mr. John Seath, High School Inspector for Ontario - -	520
	(2.) Replies received from Mr. J. E. Bryant, M.A. - - - -	526
	(3.) Replies received from Mr. A. H. Morrison, late English Master, Brantford Collegiate Institute - - - -	532
	(4.) Replies received from Mr. George Monro Grant, M.A., LL.D., Principal of the University of Queen's College, Kingston	535
AUSTRALIA:—		
South Australia -	(1.) Replies received from the Education Office, Adelaide - - - -	537
	(2.) Replies received from Mr. T. L. Bonython, Chairman of the Adelaide School Board -	538
	(3.) Replies received from Mr. Wm. G. Torr, M.A., LL.D., Way College, Adelaide -	540
Western Australia	Replies received from the Minister of Education, Perth - - - -	541
Queensland - -	(1.) Replies received from the Department of Public Instruction, Queensland - -	542
	(2.) Replies received from Mr. Charles H. Hodges, Headmaster of the Townsville Grammar School, Queensland - -	543
New South Wales	Replies received from the Department of Public Instruction, New South Wales - -	544
Victoria - -	(1.) Replies received from the Education Department, Melbourne - - -	548
	(2.) Replies received from J. Reford Carr, M.A., LL.B., Headmaster of the Methodist Ladies' College, Hawthorne, Melbourne -	552
	(3.) Replies received from Rev. Ambrose J. Wilson, D.D., late Headmaster of the Church of England Grammar School, Melbourne - - -	553
	(4.) Replies received from Mr. Thomas Palmer, M.A., LL.B., Headmaster of the University High School, Melbourne - -	558
NEW ZEALAND - -	Replies received from the Department of Education, New Zealand - - -	560
TASMANIA - -	Replies received from the Director of Education, Hobart - - - -	562

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

State.	Subject.	Page.
Illinois	Replies received from Mr. Henry H. Belfield, Director of the Chicago Manual Training School	564
Iowa	Replies received from Mr. James Simmons, Professor of Philosophy and Pedagogy in Iowa College, Grinnell	566
Maryland	Replies received from Mr. D. C. Gilman, President of Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore	568
Massachusetts	(1.) Replies received from Mr. Charles W. Eliot, President of Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.	568
	(2.) Replies received from Mr. John Tetlow, Headmaster of the Girls' High and Latin School, Boston, Mass.	571
	(3.) Replies received from Mrs. Quincy A. Shaw	572
Michigan	(1.) Replies received from Mr. James B. Angell, President of the University of Michigan	574
	(2.) Replies received from Dr. B. A. Hinsdale, Ph.D., LL.D., Professor of the Science and Art of Teaching in the University of Michigan	576
New York	(1.) Replies received from Mr. Nicholas M. Butler, Dean of Columbia College, New York City	579
	(2.) Replies received from Mr. F. D. Boynton, Principal of Ithaca High School, Ithaca, New York	580
	(3.) Replies received from Mr. Amos M. Kilsegg, Editor of "School Journal," New York City	581
	(4.) Replies received from Miss Lucy M. Salmon, Professor of History, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York	582
Pennsylvania	Replies received from Miss M. Carey Thomas, Dean of Bryn Mawr College, Philadelphia	584
Notes on the American School System, by Miss Alice Zimmern, Gilchrist Travelling Scholar		586

FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

Country.	Subject.	Page.
Austria-Hungary	(1.) Replies received through the Foreign Office	590
	(2.) Replies received from Dr. Th. Gomperz, Vienna	592
Belgium	(1.) Replies received through the Foreign Office	595
	(2.) Replies received from M. Emile Greyson	600
France	Replies received from the Minister of Public Instruction	604
German Empire:—		
Bavaria	Replies received from the Bavarian Ministry for Foreign Affairs	607
Hesse	Replies received through the Foreign Office	608
Prussia	(1.) Replies received through the Foreign Office	611
	(2.) Replies received from Professor Friedersdorf, of Halle	612

State.	Subject.	Page.
GERMAN EMPIRE—*continued.*		
Saxony	(1.) Replies received from Professor Küchenmeister, of the Schola Thomana, Leipzig	614
	(2.) Replies received from Dr. Theodor Vogel	615
	(3.) Replies received from Mr. Henry M. Felkin, of Chemnitz, Saxony	617
Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach.	Replies received from the Cultus Ministerium, Weimar	626
	Replies received from Dr. Rein, Professor of Pedagogy, Jena	630
Wurtemberg	(1.) Replies received through the Foreign Office	631
	(2.) Replies received from Dr. J. von Diefenbach, Stuttgart	632
HOLLAND	Replies received from the Minister of the Interior, The Hague	633
SPAIN	Memorandum on Education in Spain; received through the Foreign Office	634
SWEDEN AND NORWAY	(1.) Replies received from Herr Otto Salomon, Nääs, Sweden	637
	(2.) Replies received from Professor J. Mourly Vold, Professor of Philosophy at the University of Christiania	640
SWITZERLAND	Replies received from the Secretary of the Education Department of the Canton of Zürich	644

THE BRITISH COLONIES.

Circular.

HEADS OF INFORMATION WHICH IT IS DESIRED TO OBTAIN FROM THE BRITISH COLONIES.

1. What is your experience of the education of boys and girls in the same day schools, or in the same day classes, and what is your opinion of the working of the system, and as to the conditions most favourable to it as regards—

Age of scholars?
Size of the school?

2. Where is the line drawn between schools for Elementary and Secondary Education respectively?

3. What system has been tried, and with what results, for the passing of scholars from one class of school to another; and for giving aid to poor scholars of promise?

4. What has been found to be the best way of bringing technical into proper relation with general education in your secondary schools?

5. What provision exists for the training of secondary school teachers? How far is such training provided in connexion with the universities?

6. How far is Secondary Education given free of charge in your colony, and how has the system worked?

7. What proportion of students enter your universities without having previously passed through a secondary school.

8. Has there been any material change since 1865 in your system of public Secondary Education? If so, what, and on what grounds was it called for? Is the result satisfactory?

9. Has there recently been any considerable increase in the number of private schools in your colony? If so, to what cause do you attribute this increase?

ONTARIO.

Replies received from Mr. John Seath, High School Inspector for Ontario.

Educational experience.

1. My experience in connexion with the secondary school system of this province has extended overy 33 years. For 12 years I was principal of high schools; for 11, principal of a collegiate institute; and for 10 years I have been provincial inspector of high schools and collegiate institutes. For about six months of this period I had charge of a school in which boys and girls were taught in the same building, and by the same staff, but in separate classes except in the case of the seniors. As inspector I saw the working of a collegiate institute in which, until about two years ago, boys and girls were taught in separate classes but in the same building, and, except in a few cases, under the same teachers. All of the rest of my experience has been in connexion with high schools and collegiate institutes with mixed classes of boys and girls.

Co-education of boys and girls in Ontario.

2. From the date of the establishment of a provincial system of education, boys and girls were taught together in all the primary and secondary schools with a few exceptions (for a time) in the case of the latter; and about 10 years ago co-education was introduced into the provincial university (the University of Toronto) and into the three denominational universities of this province. At present, therefore, co-education prevails throughout the primary and secondary schools and universities of Ontario.

I was educated in Scotland and Ireland and came to this country prejudiced against co-education and remained so for some years. As a result of my experience, I am now strongly in favour of co-education, for the following main reasons:—

(1.) It is, in this province, the most economical and convenient system. In the highest forms of even schools of 400 and 500 pupils, the number in each class is not too large for one master. Co-education renders it unnecessary to duplicate equipments and class-room accommodations, and the higher and more expensive teachers on staffs of large schools and all the teachers on the staffs of small schools. Another consideration that has weight in a city like Toronto, which covers eight or nine miles by two or three, is the fact that access to the schools is easier if both boys and girls are admitted to each.

(2.) It is here generally admitted that co-education does not impair the discipline of the school; by many it is maintained that co-education improves the discipline. In my opinion both boys and girls exercise more self-control in one another's presence than they would if taught in separate schools and classes. As an indication of this opinion, or at least of the opinion that co-education is not objectionable on the side of discipline, I may mention that, in the city of Toronto, where over 1,500 boys and girls attend the collegiates institutes each year, the Board of Trustees, instead of establishing boys' and girls' schools, has organised three schools in each of which boys and girls are taught together.

It is, however, most important to state that there are two conditions which we secure in this Province, and without which co-education would be mischievous :— Conditions requisite for successful working of co-education.

(*a*.) Staffs of good disciplinarians. A teacher who fails to control his classes is very summarily dealt with by our boards of trustees. Probably this promptness is one result of co-education. In all my experience I have known of few disciplinary difficulties resulting from co-education. These few have been due to defective discipline and have been of short duration. Two conditions make discipline easier in our high schools and collegiate institutes. In most staffs there is a female teacher whose special duty it is to attend to such matters affecting the girls as cannot be easily dealt with by male teachers, and the fact, that in the public (or preparatory schools) the boys and girls are educated together makes it simpler to apply the same system in the secondary schools. Such intercourse as exists is easier and more natural. The novelty of the situation when boys and girls are together in the same classes for the first time is almost certain to produce difficulty; but, under proper teachers, these difficulties are but temporary.

(*b*.) School accommodations suitably arranged for mixed classes of boys and girls. In our class-rooms, during recitations, the pupils remain in their seats, the boys being at one side, and girls at the other, of the class-room; that is, although they are in the same room, they do not sit together.

As to the age of the Pupils.—Pupils enter our secondary schools generally at the age of 13 or 14. Some enter when a year or so younger, and many when older. I should say that nearly half of those in attendance are 15 years of age. Probably 20 per cent. are young men and young women, owing to the fact that the scholastic training of the public school teachers and the lowest grade of high school teachers is obtained in our secondary schools. Age of pupils.

See also the answer to Question 3 below.

As to size of the School.—This has, I think, no relation to co-education as the question presents itself here. Our smallest high schools have usually from 50 to 80 pupils, and our largest collegiate institutes from 400 to 500. So long as conditions (*a*) and (*b*) above are complied with, the size of the school should be determined by the organizing and controlling power of the best principals. My opinion is that the principal should have a personal knowledge of every pupil in his school, and that consequently two schools with an average of 300 are more efficient than one with an average of 600. Only three or four of our schools have an average in excess of 300, and it so happens that these are in charge of principals of exceptional ability. Size of school.

3.—(1.) In this province a uniform entrance examination is held every year about the 1st of July for admission to the high schools and collegiate institutes, and only those who pass the examination can be admitted. Entrance examinations.

(2.) We experience no difficulty as regards "poor scholars" in this province, chiefly because few of our people are very poor and because our high schools are either free or charge low fees. In some localities, scholarships entitling the holder to free tuition in the high schools or collegiate institutes, are given by boards of trustees. These, however, are generally regarded more as prizes for diligence and ability than as a means of helping the poor. I have known of a few cases in which meritorious pupils were unable to pay the required fee. In such cases, the power to remit was entrusted to the principal of the school, either alone or associated with the chairman of the board, and the action taken was kept wholly private. In places where the poverty of a portion of the community would present a difficulty, it could be readily overcome by the "scholarship" system mentioned above. This would provide for the Aid to poor scholars.

exceptionally gifted poor boy or girl, the only class of the poor that deserve such special consideration.

Relation of technical to general secondary instruction.

4. No attempt has been made to provide technical instruction in our secondary schools. This is provided in separate institutions, also, however, under Government control. The object of the secondary schools is to provide simply a good mental training which shall fit a pupil for any calling. There is no systematic provision for an education in morals, but in all the collegiate institutes, and in most of the high schools, systematic instruction is given in drill, gymnastics, and calisthenics. Two subjects in the high school course may seem to be technical, viz., drawing and book-keeping, a minimum course in each of which is obligatory on all pupils; but these subjects are taught chiefly for their educational value, the drawing, to train the hand and the eye and to cultivate taste, and the book-keeping, to secure for the pupils such a knowledge of business transactions as is required by every citizen.

The institutions in which technical instruction is provided are as follows:—

Art schools.
The School of Practical Science.
The Agricultural College.
In the public schools, provision has been made for teaching agriculture; but, so far, no such provision has been made in the high schools.
Mechanics Institute classes.
Elementary technical night schools.
This has been provided in the city of Toronto for machinists, &c.

Training of teachers.

5.—(1.) No one is now allowed to teach in our secondary schools who has not had at least a year's professional training. The Ontario School of Pedagogy has been established to provide professional training for high school assistants and the highest grade of public school teachers. A student of this school who passes the final examination obtains an interim certificate which is valid for two years. At the end of that time, if the teacher's school work has been satisfactory to the high school inspectors, he is given a full high school assistant's certificate; and, after another year's approved service, if a graduate of a British university, he is entitled to a certificate as principal of a high school or collegiate institute.

(2.) Our smallest university (McMaster) has on its curriculum a course in education, but this course has, so far, not assumed any provincial importance. No pedagogical training is provided in our provincial university or in the two remaining universities of Ontario. This year, however, the provincial university has established two degrees in Pedagogy,—Bachelor of Pedagogy (B.Paed.) and Doctor of Pedagogy (D.Paed.), the courses and requirements for which will be found in our University Calendar IV., pp. 168 and 169.

The Ontario Government directly controls the Secondary and Primary School systems of the province and has, so far, preferred to retain in its own hands the licensing of the teachers.

Influence of secondary education with regard to manual labour.

6.—(1.) In this province, as elsewhere, there are a number of scholars "whose circumstances would lead them to earn their living by manual "labour, and particularly by agricultural labour, but who are unwilling "or unfitted to do so." Owing, however, to the continued opening up of unsettled parts of the dominion and especially to the proximity of the United States, we have, so far, experienced no serious difficulty from this source. Large numbers of Canadian clerks and lawyers and doctors readily find remunerative employment in the northern and western States of the Union, thus relieving to a large extent the over-production of those who are unwilling or unfitted to earn their living by manual labour. In this province, I may add, there is no lack of mechanics or of farm hands (except, occasionally, of the latter during the harvest). Many of these also emigrate, farmers to the North-Western Territories, and now and then to the United States, and mechanics to the United States chiefly. Ontario is now pretty thickly populated, and in this respect its condition resembles

that of the mother country. We are suffering from the overcrowding of the legal and medical professions and the "genteeler" employments; but, owing to the exceptional position of the province, we do not suffer nearly so much as is understood to be the case in the older countries of Europe.

(2.) It would be wrong, I think, to attribute the existence of a class that are disinclined to, or unfit for, manual labour primarily to over-education or to education out of their sphere. To do so would be to mistake for the real cause one of the immediate effects. The condition of matters under consideration is due, I believe, to one of the strongest sentiments of modern civilization. There are few now-a-days who do not desire to improve their own social status or to enable their children to do so, and, the higher the civilization, the greater the desire. Theoretically, manual labour is esteemed; practically, it is a bar to social advancement. This feeling exists here, though not nearly to the same extent as in the mother country. Besides, many men are by nature disinclined to physical exertion; they prefer mental to physical toil. This is especially true of those who do not realize the fact that mental toil is more laborious and exhausting than physical. The higher education is consequently eagerly sought after as a means of gratifying these feelings. Civilization also engenders or at least stimulates the desire to live in centres of population, where life is pleasanter and the facilities for enjoyment are greater than in the country. If secondary schools exist in these centres it is clear that they will be utilized at all hazards, and that so long as human nature is constituted as it is, we cannot materially reduce the objectionable pressure by barring the doors of the secondary schools to all except the wealthy. It is, as I have said, wrong to attribute this over-pressure to over-education; the prime motive has its roots in human nature. During the last 10 years the attendance at the secondary schools in this province has been almost doubled; and, consequently, the output from the secondary schools has been largely increased. This has been due to the general advancement of the province, the improvement of our public schools and to the number, efficiency, and cheapness of our secondary schools. The urban population of this country has also increased more rapidly than the rural population, owing to the protective financial system of the Dominion, which has fostered the establishment of factories, situated, of course, in centres of population where there are railways and other facilities. In these also are situated the high schools and collegiate institutes; so that this cause has also increased the number of those averse to manual labour.

(3.) As to the remedies. If I am right that this objectionable condition of affairs is due to the constitution of human nature, it is to human nature that we should look for the remedy. In the struggle for existence, if a man fails to secure a livelihood in one way, he will try to secure it in another, even if he has to work with his hands. He will take care also that his children do not make their father's mistake. Experience will teach the lesson that a good education makes the farmer and the mechanic better workmen, besides adding to their means of enjoyment. Experience will also teach that manual labour is quite as honourable, and at least as healthy, as mental labour. So far as I can see the only school in which man can learn these lessons is that of experience. Learned there, they will be effective. A good deal may, however, be done by those in authority to set matters right:—

(*a.*) Access to the professions should be barred to all except those of good attainments and mental ability. In this province, or elsewhere, it has been too easy to become a lawyer or a doctor, or a teacher, and, in particular, the University Matriculation examination has been too easy. These defects we are gradually removing in this province. The new curricula will exact a higher standard.

(*b.*) Much may be done to better the condition of the farmer in particular and increase the dignity of his lot. In this province various effective means have been taken to secure this result.

One of the ministers of the local Cabinet has charge of agriculture and is himself a farmer. The Agricultural College has also done much to raise the status of the farmers. Agriculture is thus always "in evidence" with us. A third political party, consisting of farmers, has recently arisen here, which, it is said, will hold the balance of power in the Ontario legislature.

Private schools.

7. Private schools are a comparatively unimportant factor in education in this province. Such as we have are the results of denominational effort and owe their existence chiefly to the following causes:—

(1.) The desire to provide denominational training. Some of these so-called colleges, however, represent themselves as being non-denominational.

(2.) The necessity for boarding schools for boys and girls who have not ready access to the high schools, and whose parents are unable or unwilling to superintend their home training, or wish them to be under special educational control when not attending classes. A large number who attend the provincial high schools and collegiate institutes board in the village or town where the school is situated, from Monday morning till Friday night, spending the rest of the time at their homes. Such pupils are not under the control of high school staffs except during school hours. Either they are grown up and so able to take care of themselves, or they are put by their parents under the charge of the families with which they board. In Upper Canada College, the Ontario Government has provided a boarding school for boys, but no such governmental provision has been made for girls. Under private and denominational control there are in this province (so far as I can ascertain) two boarding schools for boys alone, 10 for girls alone, and two for boys and girls (or rather young men and young women). The total attendance of these private institutions cannot exceed 1,500, and only about half of the pupils are doing the work of the secondary schools. At the provincial secondary schools, the total attendance for 1892 was nearly 23,000. Of a total of about 450 who enter the arts departments of the universities each year, all, except 30 or 35 at the outside, have received their preparatory training at the high schools and collegiate institutes. Of those who attend the medical or other professional or technical schools affiliated to the universities, the proportion will be about the same.

Changes in system of Secondary Education since 1865.

8. The following is a statement of the most important changes that have been made in our secondary schools since 1865:—

As to Financial support.—(1.) It was first made obligatory upon the counties to grant to each high school in the county at least the equivalent of the high school grant.

(2.) High school boards were afterwards given the power to levy on the high school districts for such additional sums as were needed for the maintenance of the high schools situated therein.

(3.) In 1891 a still further step was taken to put the high schools on a firm financial basis. It was found that under the operation of (1) above, as the counties seldom granted more than the minimum prescribed by the Statute, many counties did not contribute their fair share towards the maintenance of the high schools. Accordingly, provision was made for the equitable distribution between the county and the high school district of the cost of maintaining the high school.

As to the distribution of the Legislative Grant.—At first the legislative grant was based solely on the average attendance. Afterwards the results of the departmental examinations were taken into account (the system known in England as "Payment by results"). Both of these systems led to very serious evils, the former presenting a strong inducementto swell the attendance at the expense of the efficiency, and the latter producing far too great pressure upon both teachers and pupils, and giving far too much importance to the mere passing of examinations. Under the present system, while a minimum grant is secured to every school, the

rest of the grant is distributed upon (1) the condition and suitability of the school premises, (2) the equipment, (3) the salaries, and (4) the average attendance; the last-mentioned not exceeding 50 cents. per caput. This system has been in operation for eight years and has proved most successful. Under it, the accommodations and equipment have been greatly improved, the teachers' salaries have increased, and the general condition of the schools is far better than it was eight or nine years ago.

As to Qualifications of Teachers.—While from the first the principal of a high school was required to be a graduate of a university in the British dominions, it was only in 1886 that a minimum qualification was prescribed for high school assistant teachers, and about the same time professional training was made imperative upon both. Apart from the distinction between principals and assistants, high school masters now consist of two classes—ordinary masters and specialists. The establishment of the latter class has greatly improved the qualifications of the profession, by stimulating all to obtain the higher grade of certificate which entitles the holders to better salaries and greater public consideration. It is unnecessary to point out the necessity for professional training for all grades of teachers, or to detail the advantages that have accrued to the schools from this change. I may add, however, that the limitation thus put upon the numbers entering the profession has much improved the status of the teachers in this province. It is now no longer possible for young graduates fresh from the universities to flock into the teaching profession, lowering the salaries, and using their positions in the schools as stepping stones to more remunerative employment in the "learned" professions. In this province the average high school principal, and most of the assistants, are at least as well off financially as the average professional man.

As to Examinations.—Until about 22 years ago the principal of the high school determined the standard of admission to his school. As a consequence in many localities this standard was low, and the general standard was by no means uniform. When the amount of the legislative grant to the high schools was increased with a view to increase their efficiency, the per capnt grant (made on average attendance) became a considerable sum, and, in many schools, far too many pupils were admitted, and the standard of admission went down. The standard of education in the primary (the public) schools was consequently lowered, and the efficiency of the high schools greatly impaired. This state of affairs led to the establishment of a uniform high school entrance examination, conducted by the Education Department. For a time the legislative grant continued to be based on average attendance, but, as this made numbers of more importance than efficiency, it became necessary to introduce the other considerations which have been detailed above.

So far as examinations are concerned, the first and most important step in advance was the establishment of a uniform entrance examination. Two years ago, in accordance with the demand for a still higher final examination for the public schools, the public school-leaving examination was also established, passing which entitles a candidate to enter Form 11 of the high schools. This examination will be taken chiefly by those who do not intend to matriculate, or who intend to take the science option in the high schools. It will also allow a pupil to remain a year longer in the local public school under his parents' care, and will also reduce the cost of his high school education, when it is unnecessary for him to leave his home to secure all of it.

The last and most important advance in connexion with examinations took place about four years ago. Before 1889 the medical schools, the law and other professional societies, and the universities held separate matriculation or preliminary examinations at different times and on different courses. The Education Department also held its own examinations on the high school courses, and on the literary and scientific subjects (known here as "non-professional") prescribed for the teachers' certificates. Candidates for these different examinations, whose actual attainments were about the same, had to read different texts in modern

languages and classics, and other petty and unnecessary differences existed amongst the examinations. This state of affairs harassed the high school principal in the organization of his school, and caused much loss of educational force. An almost complete unification of examination courses and examination standards has been effected. Uniform examinations are now conducted by a joint board representing the provincial university and the Education Department. These examinations are accepted by all the universities for arts matriculation, by the learned or other societies as their preliminary examinations, and by the Education Department for examinations in literature and science for teachers' certificates, and the primary and junior and senior high school certificates. For the higher grade of teachers' non-professional certificates, the Education Department accepts the examinations held by the University of Toronto, or the equivalent examinations of the other universities of the province. This change has simplified the examination machinery of the province and secured due economy of educational force. No more important and far-reaching change has of late years been effected in educational matters in this province.

Decay of private schools.

9. Twenty years ago private schools were more numerous in this province than they now are. Owing to the well-known and generally-admitted efficiency of the provincial primary and secondary schools, very few private schools now exist. Our public and high schools are attended by both the rich and the poor, and such private schools as have survived owe their existence to causes which I have already dealt with on para. 7 of this statement. Indeed, it is well understood that, owing in a large measure to the efficiency of the provincial system, several of the existing private schools have had some years to struggle for existence. As the province increases in wealth, it is likely, I think, that the number of boarding schools for girls will increase. The sentiment of the wealthier classes requires for girls an education different in some respects from that provided or likely to be provided in the high schools and collegiate institutes. The desire to secure what are regarded as "the accomplishments" will maintain the ladies' boarding schools, but it is very unlikely that private schools for boys will become more numerous.

The education furnished in the public and high schools is precisely what everyone regards boys as needing, and the fact that every county in Ontario has two or three efficient high schools, either wholly free or with low fees, doing better work in every department than any of the private schools, will prevent any further considerable development of private schools for boys. Not only has there been recently no "con-" siderable increase in the number of private schools" in Ontario, but the tendency has been to reduce the number of those now in existence.

Toronto, Ontario, Canada,
July 27th, 1894.

JOHN SEATH.

REPLIES received from Mr. J. E. BRYANT, M.A.

I.—The quality of the education given in the high schools, (1) Intellectual; (2) Æsthetic; (3) Physical.

(1.) *Intellectual.*—The education given in our high schools is, on its intellectual side, I should say, well up in the first rate. Of course it has been the subject of changes in ideal or aim, but there has always been solid attainment, and, for the last quarter of a century, I think, steady development. Under Dr. Ryerson's *régime* there was not, so far as I know, much development. The attentions of the Education Department at that time were mainly directed to public school education, and the public school system of to-day is no better than, and is scarcely as good as, it was when Dr. Ryerson retired, and this despite the fact that the public school system has really been the object of much solicitude and care on the part of the Education Department since the Department became a part of the governmental system of the province. But the

advance made by our high schools during the past 21 or 22 years has been something wonderful. This is due, first, to the establishment of a more efficient system of inspection, and, secondly, to the fact that the Department, being under the direct control of a Minister of the Crown, has been able to carry out, without let or hindrance, the recommendations made to it by inspectors and others, and, of course, thirdly, to the fact that the high school system at the beginning of this period was exceedingly rudimentary, and, therefore, capable of much improvement. Of course other reasons may be found as, for example, in the fact that the period in question, as compared with that antecedent to it, has been one of social ease and comfort, rather than one of constant struggle with the difficulties incident to the settlement of a new country, and therefore the people have had more time to give to education, and a greater inclination to encourage it, than they had in earlier days.

But taken as it stands to-day our Secondary Education is without doubt superior to that found elsewhere on the continent; superior to what is provided for pupils *in the same ranks of life* in England or Scotland; and scarcely inferior to the secondary system of Germany. What defects there are, are due more to the rush and hurry of western life, as compared with life in the old world, than to inherent faults in the system. There is nothing comparable, not even in the well filled and regularly attended classes of our city collegiate institutes, to the leisurely progress of a boy through the 12 or 15 forms or grades of a German gymnasium. Hence, there is not by any means the same finish of scholarship, especially in the languages, or in linguistic study of any sort, that obtains in the old world; but in the mathematical branches there is, I think, a decided superiority over what is generally found either in England or in Germany, and in science at least an equality. (It must be said, however, of science study in Germany, that it has been seriously taken up only within the last 10 or 12 years.) From the above, then, it will be evident that there is no anomaly in saying that while in finished scholarship—in culture—the average product of our secondary educational system is inferior to the average product of the corresponding system in Germany or France, in vigour and resourcefulness of mental equipment it is at least the equal.

The most striking feature of the "educational product" of our secondary system (if I may be allowed to use that handy phrase again) is its strange combination of strength and crudity, its range without finish, its general knowledge, exact in principles but inaccurate in little details. I think the explanation of this lies in two facts (1) that the pupils of our secondary schools come as a rule from families that are not educated, or are but poorly educated; and (2) that the hurry and all-embracingness of our western civilisation allow too little time for scholarly finish. But a very large part of the defect is due to the fact that our public school system is, as regards the quality of its product, very much what it was a quarter of a century ago, certainly not one whit better; and that, therefore, but very few of our high school pupils enter upon their high school course sufficiently well fitted for it. This insufficiency of public school training arises from many causes. Of these may be mentioned (1) that the public school ideal has made no development, and scarcely any change but deterioration for 50 years; (2) that owing to many causes our public schools are falling largely into the hands of immature, inexperienced, and imperfectly educated young women teachers; (3) that the public school course is far too short, and has bestowed upon it far too little time. It rarely extends beyond the "fourth book," and the immaturity of this standard, as it turns out to be in actual practice, would scarcely be believed by those who are unacquainted with the real state of things, accustomed as we all are to hear our public schools extolled as the "finest in the world." The real weakness of our education system, and in fact its only weakness as a system, is the crudity, mediævalism, and superficiality of its public schools.

(2.) *Æsthetic.*—The æsthetic side of our secondary school education is something which only in recent years has received any definite attention.

The study of English literature is the means now most largely used to develope the æsthetic instinct. This is pursued both formally and informally; formally by means of class instruction in the principles of rhetoric, &c., and in the examination of the masterpieces of our best writers (a few being chosen each year), and informally in the encouragement of general reading, such as of poets, essayists, novelists, &c. I think a great deal is being done by means of this last-named method. There is also a serious study of drawing. Of late this has become more artistic in its pursuit than it formerly was; for it was for some time only another branch of mathematics. Music, too, has been tried, but is now given up. Our examination system reduces every study finally to an exact science, and the "exact science" of music was found of so little edification that it was scarcely more than tried before it was abandoned. Something is accomplished, too, in most schools by voluntary effort, in the way of school societies of one sort and another. Our high school masters are, as a rule, men of culture and refinement, and I think it may be safely said that what can be done is done.

(3.) *Physical.*—Physical training is now a regular department of high school work; as much as mathematics, for example. This, however, is true only for the last eight or ten years. In all the larger schools there are gymnasiums, and many of these, as they are equipped now, could not anywhere 15 years age have been paralleled in any educational institutions but the largest colleges of the United States; and this physical training is becoming every year more and more scientific. Physical training is a matter of most careful study in many American colleges of the better class. The influence of these institutions reaches us, and our system, so far as physical education goes, is becoming every year more and more a reflex of that which is found best there. Besides this formal physical training there are, in all our best schools, voluntary associations for football (the popular school game), baseball, cricket, and even tennis. The Canadian student is rarely a pale-face. He is generally as hardy and as vigorous and as much given to sport as an English public school boy.

II. Is there any hollowness in the curriculum, or are all the subjects well taught?

I think I have answered this question by implication in what I have already said. I think I may say there is no hollowness whatever. The subjects may not all be well taught, for this implies both the knowledge of how to teach on the part of the instructor, and also, time. Assuming the former, and I think it is a safe assumption, it must be said that *time* is often deficient. A youth of ability comes up from the country. He wishes to take but one year to prepare for the "Primary Examination," while the regulation time is two or three years. Being a lad of industry and ability he gets up the work, passes the examination, and hurries forward to the next stage. There is a sacrifice, of course, of "finish" of culture, but it cannot always be said that there has been a lack of thoroughness. This citation illustrates what is taking place everywhere in the system, and is a fair statement of its pervading weakness. But the teachers are, as a rule, good scholars themselves, with high ideals as regards thoroughness and accuracy. They are nevertheless the slaves of circumstance. It must be said, however, that our system of centralised provincial examinations is of great help to thoroughness. Of course, this system is not perfect in its working, and often conserves that which it is intended to do away with, viz., superficial cramming; but on the whole it works well. Apart from the shortness of time given to high school work, to which I have referred, the main reason why our secondary system can in any sense be said to be superficial is the lack of due preparation for it in our public schools. As I have said before, our public school course is too short, too meagre, too unscientific and irrational, and too ill provided for, to give anything like an adequate equipment for the high school course for which it is supposed to be in some sort a preparation.

III. What are the effects of the system on moral character?

As a system the attitude of our entire educational work to moral character is one of indifference (using this word in its old sense). It makes neither for nor against moral character, only in so far as it does so indirectly. The great mass of our people believe in the Bible as the foundation of ethical doctrine, and yet unfortunately they so much disagree about it that they cannot do more than allow the Bible to be used indirectly as a factor of ethical training. In other words, the Bible is used only as a formal reading book, and that for the most part by the teacher alone. And agreeing and disagreeing in this way so strongly about the Bible, they are also averse to the use of any other instrument of formal ethical teaching. Hence, ethics as a subject of study, or of formal instruction or attention of any sort, is non-existent in our schools. It happens, however, that most of our high school teachers are men of the highest moral character. Many are Christians, some few, perhaps, are not. But all alike, whether Christians or not, have, I believe, high moral ideas, and it cannot be said that the resultant influence of our education system upon moral character is indifferent. It is a very positive influence, as I believe, towards the building up of character upon the principles of truth, honour, and integrity. Of course this influence is far greater in some schools than in others, and under some masters than others. But the net influence is, so I believe, as I have stated.

IV. The economical effects of the system.

If by this is meant the influence of the system upon our social economy, my answer would be that it is very largely partial and one-sided. Our modern social economy is a very complex affair, and is but very partially provided for when one phase only of its intellectual character is looked after. Our high school system, despite the influences of our "twentieth century" civilization, is still moulded upon early nineteenth century ideals. It is primarily linguistic, then mathematical, and then (and that only very recently) scientific. Of late (during the last four or five years) there has been an attempt made to meet the commercial instincts of our people by a so-called "commercial course," but this course is, unfortunately, in the minds of many of our influential educators, but a "side issue," and is, therefore, not very seriously pursued. So far as the ideals here outlined are concerned, the influence of our Secondary Education system on our social economy is good enough. But it is evident that these ideals pertain to only a portion, and only a small portion, of our social economy. As said before, the æsthetic ideals of education are largely left out, the ethical almost wholly so. There is also no serious attempt made to provide any systematic study of our social structure—either municipal or political—nor of the conditions under which industry is organised, trade made possible, and the individual units aggregated into the social organisation. In other words, there is no systematic study of our modern system of society, and of the individual's place in it, a relationship which, next to his ethical relationship, is the most important that he is a party to. Similarly, there are whole ranges, range after range, of industrial pursuits, to which a well organised system of Secondary Education ought to form some sort of preparation. But the demands of these, and of almost every other aspect of practical life, are ignored in our system, except those of the teaching profession. In this respect, however, our system is not alone; in fact, it is quite the equal of every other national system, with the exception, in part, of Germany and France.

V. Does it unduly draw children away from the farm and lead to their crowding into cities?

It certainly does conduce to the drawing away of children from the farm and the crowding of them into the cities, but whether "unduly" or not is a matter, perhaps, for difference of opinion. There is no inherent virtue in country life that it should be specially concerned, no inherent

viciousness in city life that it should be specially deprecated. The fault of our Secondary Education system lies not in the fact that it is inimical to country life, but that it is inimical to industrial pursuits of every sort. In this it shares responsibility with almost every other national system. Youth is the period not only of learning but of adaptation. The ideals of life are fixed before the age of maturity fully sets in. The result is, that a boy educated at one of our secondary schools, with no ideal of life before him but that of some intellectual pursuit, generally adapts himself to that ideal, and becomes, by sheer force of environment, a candidate for some such profession as law, medicine, theology, or pedagogy. The remedy lies (and the word "remedy" is a correct one, for the phenomenon is one of disease, not of normal social order) in the adaptation of our secondary system of instruction not alone to those intellectual pursuits mentioned, but to all other pursuits proper to a well constituted social order, that is, to the so-called industrial pursuits as well as to the professional ones.

VI. The effects on the family—does it do harm by bringing the children away from their homes?

Of course a good system of Secondary Education can never be as general as the primary system, to which it is second, and, therefore, in any system of Secondary Education there will be more or less of separation from the family circle. That this obtains to any undue degree in Ontario cannot be said to be true, inasmuch as our secondary system is very well diffused.

VII. The effect of female teachership, and of the co-education of the sexes?

Female teachers are not yet very common in our high schools, and as long as the present ideals of high school education continue in vogue are not likely to become so. Co-education has had this effect, however, it has sent forward many girls to our universities, and these have for the most part been graduated in the departments akin to their general tastes, viz., the departments of modern languages. The result is, that these young people, being impelled forward to follow some pursuit in order to earn a livelihood, and having had before them only what I have called intellectual ideals, that is, pursuits in life which are more or less intellectual, and finding law and medicine more or less uncongenial to them, have largely betaken themselves to teaching, and hence have taken up in our high schools the departments in which they were graduated. The modern languages, therefore, in our high schools are gradually falling into the hands of young women, with the result that young men are more and more giving that department the "go-by." So far this is the only observable effect of co-education upon the teaching of our high schools, and it is not a very important one.

As regards the effect of co-education in our high schools and universities upon the status of education in general, I would say that it cannot but be beneficial so long as our primary schools continue to be presided over so largely by female teachers, for though the female teacher of the primary grade rarely proceeds to a degree, yet the way is open for her to do so, and if she tries to do so, and makes any effort in that direction, she is certainly a better teacher for that effort, than if, as so many are content to do, she passes her whole time in vegetative inaction. The effect of female teachers on primary education is, I believe, outside of the scope of this inquiry, but it may, perhaps, make my estimate of our education system better understood if I say that, in my opinion, the effect is most deplorable, and that the general prevalence of female teachers in primary schools is their most wide-reaching and most serious defect. The reasons for this opinion are so numerous, and embrace so large an examination of our whole social economy, that I cannot even mention them; I can only say that I see no hope of permanently improving our public schools until this fault is to some extent mitigated.

As to the general effect of co-education in our high schools upon the pupils themselves, I can only say that in my experience the effect has

seemed to me to be wholly beneficent. Man is a social being, and there is no harm, but rather the reverse, in his learning this fact in the school-room, and in preparing there for its practical recognition in after-life. The effect upon both the conduct and character, of both boys and girls, of co education properly pursued, is too marked for good to those who have tried it ever to result in the abandonment of the system. The superabundance of women teachers in our primary schools, the crowding of young women into clerkships and professions, and many other undoubted evils which are commonly attributed to co-education as their cause, are *not* due to co-education as such, but to a wrong system of education, a system of education which is more or less mediæval, and which is therefore only very partially adapted to our modern needs. Woman's place in the world and man's are wholly distinct. Nature sets the limits. A false ideal of so-called female enfranchisement has for the time obliterated from view those natural limits, but the limits, nevertheless, must be regarded in a national system of education, or social deterioration ensues. We are, for the time being, experiencing this social deterioration in our western communities. But a true system of education, however, a system not mediæval, but one wisely adapted to our modern social needs, will do for woman just exactly what it will do for man, it will prepare her for her due place in the social structure, that is, it will give her the amplest facilities for taking that place in the social structure for which her sex and her individual talents and tastes best fit her. Under such a system we should no longer hear of the unsexing of women, or of the crowding of young people into the professions, or the desertion of country life for the city. It is only necessary to provide for each industrial pursuit that measure of intellectual, scientific, and artistic preparation which properly belongs to it, in order to make it attractive as a life-work, and when that is done there will be no dearth of candidates for it. The human mind is too varied and individual to betake itself wholly to one pursuit, or one range of pursuits, except when forced to develop itself under abnormal conditions; and the fact that our education system has a tendency to force young men and women into one line or range of pursuits is a sure sign, not that the system is wrong in itself, but that the ideals of the system are wrong.

VIII.—In answer to the question: "Have I any opinion as to the "respective advantages, intellectual and moral, possessed by high schools "supported by Government, and by a secondary system established on a "voluntary basis?" I would say—

A secondary *system* of education established on a voluntary basis is an impossibility. You can no more have that than you can have a system of gaols, or hospitals, or asylums, or for that matter, of railways or post-offices, established on a voluntary basis. Education is a social function, and has to be organized as such. Like all other social functions, there will be certain faults in it, no matter how carefully you administer it—a suppression of the individual faculty for example, for the advantage of the development of the general faculty. The deficiency of a state system of education in moral training (which is the deficiency most usually cited) does not arise from any inherent defect in the system as such; but because society is not agreed, nor is anywhere within the reach of practical agreement, as to what moral education is, or what it should be based on, or how it should be carried out. Until you get some sort of practical agreement in these matters, you never can have a system of education that will be wholly satisfactory to all people. You may get pretty near it, as we do in this country, but even here, we do not all agree upon the constitution of our national system. Hence there will always be a demand for voluntary schools, and there will always be some people who for conscience sake will support them. But the advantages of a national system in respect to universality of application and general range of excellence are so obvious that wherever once introduced, it will always extend and develop rather than become restricted in range or lowered in character. And for these obvious advantages people will do, as we do here in Ontario, they will agree to let moral education be a

matter of explanation and inculcation of principles of action and rules of conduct, rather than of direct teaching in any set of formal doctrines. And, too, Christian people, who might at first sight be supposed to be those most likely to oppose such a system, have as a rule, too much confidence in the effect of the formal ethical instruction which is given in their churches and at their homes to have any misgivings because of the lack of such formal instruction at school.

J. E. Bryant, M.A.

I was for one year a public school teacher. For eight years high school master in subordinate positions as teacher of general subjects and of mathematics specially—at Whitby and Clinton Collegiate Institutes—then high schools. For two years principal of Pickering College (which by the way was a voluntary school). For three years principal of Galt Collegiate Institute. For two years editor of educational weekly. For some time, over two years, engaged by the Education Department in preparing text-books, and in this way had, perhaps more than anyone else, to do with getting up the present sytem of school readers, both for public and high schools, and the public school geography. For three years a member of the committee which sets all the papers in all the subjects for all the examinations of our secondary school system, and as such set, myself, the questions in English grammar, history, and geography.

J. E. B.

Replies received from Mr. A. H. Morrison, late English Master, Brantford Collegiate Institute.

The collegiate institutes and high schools of the province of Ontario, form the connecting link between the elementary or public schools and the university; they are the centres of so-called Secondary Education, and are attended by all, male or female, who may be desirous of a more extended course of studies than that offered by the public schools, or whose aim is to pass into the university for degrees or to enter one or other of the learned professions.

The collegiate institute is merely a high school of superior rank, depending for that rank upon the number of students on its rolls, the number studying the higher subjects, the nature and efficiency of its equipments and the strength of its teaching staff.

These collegiate institutes and high schools are presided over by a head master called the principal, who must be a graduate of a university and a specialist in some certain department or departments of study. They are moreover, under the supervision of two government inspectors, senior and junior, whose visits are paid annually, and whose reports are forwarded to the Education Department at Toronto, presided over by a member of the local legislature, the holder of a portfolio, who is styled the Minister of Education.

As the chief of the Education Department is before all things a politician, it is to be expected that the political atmosphere will cling to the subordinates and the officers of that department.

This tendency leads to favouritism and other abuses. We are not unacquainted in educational circles with such phrases as "pulling strings," "working the oracle," &c.

It is a question open for debate whether the chief of a great national educational system should be a politician; the farther education is kept apart from politics and sectarian influence the better; radicalism in politics and "separate" or denominational teachings, though apparently at opposite poles, tend to the same results, they lead to license, not liberty. That the chief of the educational system should be one of the ablest scholars, astutest intellects, and most accomplished gentlemen obtainable, is an axiom that admits of no debate. We have not yet attained this lofty ideal in Canada.

A government inspectorate is useful in its place. It is useful in this respect; that, when the fittings and appliances of a school are at the mercy of a board of trustees, many of whom may be thoroughly uneducated men, and have little real sympathy with the work of the schools, and so seek to diminish the expenditure at the cost of efficiency, then the government inspector, armed with the powers of his office, stepping in, becomes a useful corrective. As a protector he is useful; but with protection his utility ends. When inspectors interfere with the regimen of the class-room, or endeavour to curtail the professional liberty of the teacher, they become not merely useless, but dangerous; they are inquisitors, seeking to shackle that independence of personal method and practice without which there can be no true teaching. The teachers should be competent, then they should be left to themselves to do their teaching.

The revenues of the collegiate institutes and high schools are derived from various sources; a Government grant, depending upon the efficiency of the school equipment and the character of the work done; fees, sums paid quarterly by the pupils; local taxes or school taxes levied upon the rate-payers.

The size and importance of these seats of secondary instruction vary; the largest accommodate from 300 to 400 pupils, and employ a staff of from 10 to 12 instructors, the smallest are not unfrequently limited to a staff of three or even two, and the attendance is proportionably small. There are between 100 and 150 of these schools in a province whose total population may be a little over 2,000,000, and they employ between 400 and 500 teachers.

The curriculum is an extended one, the subjects being taken up in four forms, which forms may be subdivided at the discretion of the principal. The routine of study is as follows:—Forms I. and II. Reading, English Grammar, English Composition, Rhetoric, English Poetical Literature, History and Geography, Arithmetic and Mensuration, Algebra, Euclid, the Commercial Course and Drawing, with Latin, or French, or German, or Physics and Botany. Form III. English Grammar, English Composition, Rhetoric, English Poetical Literature, History and Geography, Arithmetic and Mensuration, Algebra, Euclid and Chemistry, with Latin, or Greek, or French, or German, or Physics. Form IV. English Grammar, Philology, Rhetoric, Prosody, English Composition, English Poetical Literature, History and Geography, Algebra, Euclid and Trigonometry, with Greek and Latin, or French and German, or Chemistry, Physics, Botany and Zoology.

Upon a careful reading of this course, one is apt to wonder, with the rustics of Goldsmith, that the small heads of the present generation can carry all they know.

The time of attendance of a student at a high school varies from six to eight years to half as many months. Not a few enter as children and pass regularly through all the forms, the admissions being subject to competitive examinations; many enter as well-grown youths and maidens for the second, or third, or fourth forms, according to attainments and end in view; many more come in as adults, whose ages vary from 40 downwards. These enter simply to refurbish rusty acquirements before sitting for the examinations that are to lead to the University, to a higher grade of teachers' certificate, or to some of the special examinations, such as medicine, law, the Civil Service, engineering, &c., &c.

The whole course of study, especially with the maturer students, is directed to the examination as an end. The examinations, held monthly or bi-monthly, or intermittently, at the pleasure of the instructor, or annually, as in the case of the departmentals, are the centres of the system; they absorb everything and often divert the minds of pupils from their natural course.

It is not unusually the practice for teachers, especially the knowing ones, to drill their classes systematically and almost exclusively upon old examination papers, *i.e.*, papers set at by-gone examinations; when the name of the examiner in future is known, his methods of questioning are

carefully studied, and are drilled "up to," with the view of meeting his probable requirements.

The professions to-day in Canada, including those of law, medicine and education, are filled to overflowing with a mass of the so-called educated, who have renounced their legitimate callings on the farm, or at the counter, or in domestic service, to inundate the cities, towns, and villages with a deluge of professional mediocrity or worse.

It is not too much to say that many professional men who have been educated at the high schools of Ontario, and who have taken degrees and diplomas at the University, are, to-day, in a state bordering upon actual want. They cannot dig, or will not, having become sensitive by contact with letters, while to beg they are ashamed; and it requires little keenness of observation to trace the cause of much of the social unrest, distress, and despair of the present age, to the virus of mis-education, which has infected the blood of the body politic.

A high education engenders wants, desires, aspirations, ambitions. How are these to be gratified?

The thousands that are annually forsaking the country districts and manual labor for the city and its avocations, especially that of teaching, will not return to the country when their educational term is completed, unless it be to take a position as teacher in rural school, at a salary that would be flouted by a bar tender, and this merely as a means to obtain a little more money wherewith to prosecute further studies in medicine, divinity, or law.

A little learning is a dangerous thing, and it is but a little learning that the high schools, as at present constituted, can give. True, the subjects are many, by far too many; there is nothing too lofty nor too erudite for their curricula, from Greek to geometry, Latin to literature, algebra to acoustics, dynamics to drill, psychology to sectarianism, arithmetic to agriculture, trigonometry to temperance; but it is merely veneer, the smattering begotten of systematic cram and ceaseless examinations.

The young man comes to the high school fresh from the country. He may or may not have had some preliminary training in the higher grade subjects taught in the upper schools. He has had to pass a certain examination for entrance, that is to say, he has had to obtain a certain percentage of marks in the following subjects:—Reading, English literature, orthography and orthœpy, geography, English composition, outlines of Canadian history, arithmetic, writing and drawing, physiology and temperance, but of classics or moderns, or science, or anything approaching to correct, not to say, literary English, he need know little or nothing. These things have to be crammed into him at the shortest possible notice by men, or women, so-called specialists, who, more particularly in the smaller schools, are heavily handicapped in their work, being often compelled to teach half a dozen subjects with one or two of which alone they are familiar. In a certain provincial high school the head master, a specialist in French and German, has had to take besides his own subject, mathematics and science, knowing as much about the last, upon his own confession, as the majority of the students themselves. In another collegiate school, drill and gymnastics was coupled with English language and literature, albeit the instructor (*sic*) knew no more of club swinging than of Choct-aw, and had not been inside of a gymnasium for 25 years.

The outcome may be imagined; superficiality, theory, mere rote work. Of course the larger schools are better officered and equipped, but even in these much of the work done is of the most perfunctory nature, and three-fourths of it worthless to the student in his after life.

The cause of much of the haste, superficiality and mental indigestion is directly attributable to the fact that we are all attempting to do in one year or two years what should properly take two or four years to accomplish.

The majority of the sufferers plead poverty as an excuse for haste. They cannot afford, even with State aid, to protract their time of studies. And now comes in one of the most burning of all the vexed questions

connected with the popular education theory. To what extent has the pleader of poverty a right to higher education at all? Is it not a luxury to be paid for like other luxuries? Is the State bound to provide Greek, Latin, Anglo-Saxon and the higher mathematics any more than it is bound to previde carriages and horses, footmen, and heraldic devices?

Is popular higher education tending, in "this Canada of ours" to happiness and contentment? So far as we have been able to judge, we unhesitatingly say, it is not; for with education have arisen aspirations that cannot be gratified save at the cost of simplicity and honour; the limitations remain the same as before, the desires are doubled or trebled.

As we have already observed, there is a class of students to be found in every high school of the province to whom certain of the preceding remarks do not apply. They are the children of wealthy men, or of intelligent men who desire a more systematic and thorough training for their sons and daughters than that accorded to the mere examination hobbyist. These take their studies more deliberately, remain longer in the classes, and usually have the advantage of entering the high schools at an early age, passing into them from the public schools by competitive examination. Many of these students do not enter for the University, or learned professions, or final examinations at all. They drop out, sometimes to go to private or to special institutions; sometimes, especially in the case of the girls, to assume home duties; sometimes to obtain clerkships, or assist their fathers in their respective callings. It is to be regretted that many of the best and brightest students thus pass away and are lost, while of those that remain, a large percentage are from the country or from the humbler classes, whose sole aim is the teacher's certificate or the coveted pass which admits them to the University, and so to the threshold of the overburdened, underpaid, and often ill-served professions.

It is questionable whether the co-education of the sexes in the high schools, and the studying together of the same subjects by young men and women, is the unadulterated good that the enthusiasts of the system assert.

It appears to us that something is lost to the young woman by the system, without any corresponding gain to the young man. There is a tendency to make a certain type of young man effeminate, and a certain type of young woman the reverse. The instructor has to put restraints upon himself, and there are few teachers, we fancy, who have not at times felt the awkwardness of their position when conducting mixed classes in the classics, science, physiology, and high English literature.

We must not be misunderstood. This is not a question of morals. The morality, the virtue may be unimpeachable, indeed, is unimpeachable. With women it is a question of womanliness, of dignity, of tenderness, of grace.

This leads to a consideration of the question of the female element in tuition. By far the greater number of our rural schools are in the hands of female teachers, many of whom, themselves high school and normal school graduates, receive the barest pittance as remuneration for their services. For young children the proper directress is the woman, of this we have little doubt; but the rustic advanced in years requires more vigorous rule. In the collegiate institutes and high schools, we have little hesitation in saying, the female teacher, especially in the upper classes, is out of place.

REPLIES received from Mr. GEORGE MONRO GRANT, A.M., LL.D., Principal of the University of Queen's College, Kingston, Canada.

1. I have taught in two of the provinces of Canada in public or common schools, in high schools, and in colleges where co-education is practised, but in this paper I confine myself to high schools, as the Commission deals with Secondary Education. I may also premise that education in Canada is by an organic law entrusted to the provincial and not to the

federal authorities, and that though the system is pretty much the same in the majority of the provinces, there are such differences that an expression of opinion should be obtained from all the provinces, or at least from Quebec and Ontario. I speak with reference to Ontario.

2. The system works well, it being of course understood that there are always separate offices, separate playgrounds, separate entrances, &c., and very generally division of the class-rooms according to sex. The pupils in our high schools range from 12 to 20 years of age. In my opinion, the real danger is in the common schools, where the pupils are younger, especially if there are places where they can meet secretly. The high schools known to me have from 60 to 500 pupils of both sexes, and, so far as I have learned, experience everywhere is favourable to the system. The influence is for good on both sexes.

3. There are "promotion" and "entrance" examinations in this province, but the feeling now is against these, and more and more attention is being paid to masters' reports or recommendations.

Education is practically free in Ontario, and the people of the province are sufficiently well-to-do to be able to send their children to the high school, where they have proved, by passing the promotion or entrance examination, that they are of more than average ability. To aid the best pupils to proceed from the high school to the university, a system of small bursaries, such as they have in Aberdeen, Scotland, would, in my opinion, be desirable.

4. The need for technical education is only beginning to be felt in Canada, and some provision is made for it in our two largest cities, Montreal and Toronto, and in connection with an academy under the auspices of the Baptist denomination at Woodstock, Ontario, but I cannot speak from intimate or personal knowledge on what is being done. As regards agriculture, which is the great industry of Canada, attempts have been made to give elementary technical instruction in the common schools, but with little success. It is now felt that special schools or a corps of travelling teachers, giving short courses in different centres, would be best.

5. The majority of our high school teachers have taken the B.A. degree in one of our universities. The possession of that degree, with the professional training obtained at the School of Pedagogy, Toronto, which they must attend for a year, qualifies them. The minority have qualified by attending the normal, model, and high schools, and the School of Pedagogy thereafter.

6. It is not true as regards Canada generally, save to a very limited extent, and that chiefly in the Province of Quebec, where the colleges that give secondary education confine themselves exclusively to a classical course. The high schools in the other provinces have English commercial, mathematical, and science courses. The science courses cover botany, chemistry, zoology, and physics. Wherever the evil exists, the remedy is along the line of making education bear more upon the ordinary life and thought, the habits, occupations, and professions of the people.

7. A very small proportion.

8. No. There has been development and extension, but no material change since 1865.

9. There has been, particularly in adventure schools or so-called "colleges" for young women. Some of these charge high fees and are excellent. A great many parents prefer such "colleges" to the public high schools for a variety of reasons. The course is not so severe, and it is felt that growing girls should not be subjected to too much intellectual strain. More attention, too, is given in those schools to deportment, to music, and to drawing and painting than is given in the high schools. Some parents, too, believe that refinement of manners and correctness of speech are more likely to be learned where the fees are high and the classmates select, and some are strongly opposed to co-education, from prejudice, conviction, or the force of habit.

In giving the above answers I have abstained from criticism of our high school system, as I desired to confine myself to the questions asked.

GEORGE MONRO GRANT.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

REPLIES received from the EDUCATION OFFICE, ADELAIDE.

SIR,

I BEG respectfully to submit the following replies to the paper of queries forwarded by the Royal Commission on Secondary Education in England. The information given is based on five years' experience as head master of one of the principal secondary schools in the Colony, and nearly 19 years as professional head of the Education Department.

1. With very few exceptions the schools under this department are mixed schools, *i.e.*, boys and girls are taught in the same classes. Even in a school conducted in separate departments for boys and girls the classes are combined if economy and efficiency are promoted thereby.

As to the age of the scholars; this does not exceed as a rule 13 to 14. For such young children mixed schools answer very well.

As to the size of the school; we find that when the average attendance reaches about 600, the sexes can be economically taught in separate classes. In the higher parts of the school, however, there are too few of each sex to justify the employment of distinct teachers, and the classes are accordingly combined.

2. The State schools in this colony (with one exception to be mentioned later on) do not give an education beyond the elementary stage; in other words, neither mathematics nor foreign languages find a place in the regular curriculum. The schools for Secondary Education are either private proprietary schools, or the so-called "colleges" established by religious bodies. To these must be added the advanced school for girls, for which the Government accept the financial responsibility; but the fees received cover the annual cost, so that no claim is made on the public treasury.

3. There is a system of exhibitions and bursaries by which six boys and six girls are selected annually after competitive examinations. The boys receive 20*l.* per annum for three years on condition that they attend an approved secondary school, and the girls are allowed free education for four years at the advanced school. The system has been in force for 18 years for boys and 14 years for girls. The results have been distinctly good, a very satisfactory proportion of the exhibitioners having made full use of their opportunities.

4. I have no experience in this matter.

5. There is no provision for the training of secondary school teachers.

The training college, established by the Government, is for primary school teachers only. Private persons would be allowed to attend the course on payment of a moderate fee, but practically no one does so.

6. Except by the system of exhibitions and bursaries referred to above, to which may be added a very small number of free scholarships offered by the schools, Secondary Education is not given free of charge at all.

7. Practically no students enter the university day classes without having passed through a secondary school. There are some self-educated persons who attend the evening classes, but I cannot give the proportion.

8. If by "Public" Secondary Education is meant that which is maintained at the public cost, I have already stated that there is no such system. If it means the general Secondary Education of the Colony, the facts are as follows:—

There have been material changes since 1865 in the system of public Secondary Education. These changes have been due (*a*) to the founding of the university, and (*b*) to the opening of more schools for Secondary Education owned by public bodies as opposed to private individuals. It

may be added that the development of an effective system of primary education has had some reflex influence on the secondary schools.

The university has affected the Secondary Education of the colony by its system of examinations (analogous to Oxford and Cambridge Locals). The first were held in 1876, and from that time constantly increasing numbers of candidates have been sent from the secondary schools. Practically the university directs within certain limits the course of study followed in the schools. On the whole, the influence of the university has been very beneficial, though the well-known drawbacks attendant on a necessarily somewhat rigid system exist here as elsewhere.

Prince Alfred College was opened in 1868 and Way College in 1892.

9. There has been no considerable increase in the number of private schools. New schools have been opened but not in such numbers as to call for remark.

(Signed) JOHN A. HARTLEY,
Inspector-General of Schools.

To the Secretary,
Hon. Minister of Education.

REPLIES furnished by Mr. J. L. BONYTHON, Chairman of the Adelaide School Board.

SIR,

I HAVE the honour to furnish the following answers to the questions submitted by the Secretary of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education in England —

1. The schools under the jurisdiction of the Adelaide School Board have an average attendance of from 700 to 1,000 children. They are divided into three departments—boys, girls, and infants. The ages range from 5 to 15, attendance being compulsory between 7 and 13. At the latter age the majority of the children leave school. In the infant department both sexes are taught together, and this is also sometimes done when subjects are taken beyond the compulsory standard. In country districts, where schools are smaller, boys and girls are taught in the same classes. Both the city and country systems work well.

2. State education in South Australia is confined to free elementary schools, with the exception of an advanced school for girls which charges fees and is self-supporting. The other secondary schools are connected with the Anglican, Roman Catholic, and Methodist Churches, or in the hands of private persons.

3. As the result of competitive examinations, held annually, six exhibitions are awarded to boys and six bursaries to girls attending State schools. Each exhibition means 20*l.* per annum for three years, provided the holder goes to an approved secondary school. A bursary carries with it four years' free tuition at the girls' advanced school. As may be supposed, this system, which has been in operation for some years, has proved of great advantage to many students.

4. This question may be answered by a statement of the history of technical education in South Australia. In 1886 the Government appointed a board "to inquire into and report upon the best means of "developing a general system of technical education in the province." The board took voluminous evidence and brought up two reports. The first report had reference to primary schools. It recommended that elementary drawing should be made a compulsory subject and "taught "concurrently with writing by the ordinary school teachers"; that "instruction in science should take the form of systematic object lessons, "due regard being given in the choice of subjects to their application to "the industrial requirements of the district in which each school is "situated"; that encouragement should be given by the Education Department to head-teachers to form in their schools museums of objects of industrial interest; and that where practicable cookery classes for girls should be established. These alterations in the primary school

curriculum were considered necessary to form a foundation for technical education. The board's recommendations were adopted, and English analysis was omitted from the subjects previously taught.

The final report covered wider ground. It stated :—"Technical education is attracting world-wide attention as a chief factor in determining the future relative rank of nations, and practical educators place more and more reliance on general technical training, not only for its own sake but also because it is the best means of giving to subsequent special training its full effect. In a young country like South Australia, with vast resources and industrial lines not yet fully defined, general technical training should find its fullest development. Equipped with such instruction, possessing a sound knowledge of the principles of applied science, and endowed with manual dexterity, the workman will readily discern the conditions favourable to the establishment of new industries; he will have a keen eye to the utilisation of waste products, and in times of depression or the overcrowding of an industry he can transfer his energy into a remunerative channel. Handicrafts in many respects resemble one another, and on a good stock of general technical aptitude the skill necessary for any particular trade is readily engrafted. The opinion is rapidly gaining ground that instruction in the subjects included under general technical training should be commenced at an early period of life; they amply fulfil both the requirements of general education, being not only pre-eminently useful in every form of active life, industrial or otherwise, but also affording the best means of developing the faculties. This view is fully borne out by the firmly-established position of the Kindergarten as the best form of infant school." The report went on—"As a rule children leave the State schools about the age of 13, but do not become apprenticed till a year or two afterwards. It would be a gain to the lad who is destined to become an artisan if some part of these intervening years were spent in general technical training, and an immense advantage to those who are ambitious of rising to the rank of foreman or manager. The due development of our industries demands that some provision should be made for secondary industrial education. Our rising manufactures will in a few years require a large number of skilled workmen, foremen, and managers, and if we do not provide for the occasion by the continuation of general technical training beyond the compulsory school age the positions which belong by right to our own lads will fall into the hands of chance comers."

The report contained a number of recommendations. The most important had reference to the establishment in Adelaide of a School of Mines and Industries and a Technological Museum. These were called into existence by the appointment, in November 1888, of an influential council, and at the present time there exist an excellent museum and a flourishing school. The number of students has increased each year. Last year they numbered 660. The subjects taught included assaying, metallurgy, applied mechanics, chemistry, mathematics, engineering, machine construction, geology, mineralogy, mining, physics, drawing, surveying, bookbinding, carpentry, carriage drafting, electrical engineering, engine driving, fitting and turning, pattern-making, shop-drawing, plumbing, photography, painting, cookery, and dressmaking. The diploma of the school may be obtained in three departments:—mining, metallurgy and assaying, and mechanical engineering. In the last-mentioned the course occupies four years, in the others three years. For all classes in the school fees are charged, but they are very moderate, as the institution is subsidised by the Government to the extent of 3,000*l.* per annum. A number of scholarships entitling the holders to free tuition are awarded every year. There are branch schools in the country, the most important being in the copper mining district of Yorke's Peninsula.

Of late the secondary schools have devoted increased attention to technical education, some having availed themselves of the advantages offered by the School of Mines and Industries, and others having opened carpentry and fitting and turning classes in their own establishments

Technical education, with special reference to farming, is also given at the Government Agricultural College.

5. There is no provision for the training of secondary school teachers. Elementary school teachers receive instruction in a Government training college.

6. Secondary Education is only free in South Australia as provided for by exhibitions, bursaries, and scholarships given by the State and by private and other schools.

7. The proportion is very small. The great bulk of the students are from the secondary schools.

8. Since the year 1865 the University of Adelaide has been established, and the number of secondary schools has increased. Two colleges (Prince Alfred and Way) have been founded by the Methodist Church, and one has been opened by the Christian Brothers under the auspices of the Roman Catholic Church. There can be no question that Secondary Education has improved, and is much more effective than formerly. This is to be explained by the University periodical examinations, which operate as a test of school work, and also by a better system of primary education, due to the genius and enthusiasm of the Inspector-General of Schools, Mr. J. A. Hartley, B.A., B.Sc.

8. There has been no material increase in the number of private schools. As religious instruction is not given in State schools, there is a movement, which is gaining in strength, to provide for such instruction, or to secure subsidies for other schools. Should subsidies be given, there is sure to be a considerable increase in the number of private and denominational schools.

I am, &c.
J. L. BONYTHON,
President of the Council of the
School of Mines and Industries and
Chairman of the Adelaide School Board.

REPLIES furnished by Mr. WILLIAM G. TORR, M.A. (Oxon.), LL.D. (Dublin), Way College, Adelaide, South Australia.

1. I have had some years' experience in the education of boys and girls in the same day schools, and strongly prefer their being kept separate and taught by teachers of their own sex.

In schools of less than a hundred pupils it might be wise to put them together on account of the expense incurred, but I should enforce a separate playground. In semi-tropical climates like Australia, where puberty occurs much earlier than in colder climates, it would be unwise to put girls in the same class as boys after they reach 11 years of age.

2. In South Australia Secondary Education is recognised by the Government Education Department only in the case of girls, and only one advanced school has been opened. The line is generally drawn about the age of 12, when children pass the compulsory standard, which includes reading (Nelson's Fourth Royal Reader), writing, composition, dictation, arithmetic (exercises in the compound rules), easy fractions (vulgar and decimal).

3. Bursaries and exhibitions are given to children after passing a competitive examination. They have a choice of entering certain secondary schools. The results have been very satisfactory. Many of the exhibitioners take the University Scholarships (Adelaide University), and have secured very good degrees.

4. Two methods are in force: (*a.*) Sending boys to the School of Mines on Saturdays for lessons in carpentry; (*b.*) Erecting sheds for carpentry and smithing on the grounds of the secondary schools. The latter method has proved very successful. Masters in various trades have been engaged, and boys are taken out during school hours, and carefully instructed in the use of various tools.

5. No special training of secondary school teachers has been provided. The universities educate for degrees only. Until a chair of pedagogy is established, I am afraid nothing will be done. Our system is a standing disgrace to us in this particular.

6. Secondary Education has never been given free in the colony of South Australia, except in the case of those who have won bursaries or exhibitions. This has been referred to in my answer to Question 3.

7. I cannot speak with confidence, but I should say that 2 per cent. of our students entering our universities do not pass through a secondary school.

8. There is only one secondary school established by the Government in South Australia, and that is for girls. It was called for, because the secondary schools for girls were all under private teachers, many of whom had no previous training for their profession. It has been established since 1865. The principal secondary schools for boys are under the care of religious denominations. The principal change introduced has been the introduction of manual instruction. The grounds for establishing it were the fact that many of our colonial youths had no intention of going up for a university degree, and it was thought that a distinctly intellectual training suitable to the capacity of certain boys, would be given, which would be of far greater use to them in years to come than either classics or mathematics. The results of the introduction of this method in 1892 has exceeded the expectations of its most sanguine supporters.

9. The introduction of free education some years since caused a considerable decrease in the number of private schools in the colony of South Australia. Lately there has been a reaction, and the desire for religious education (which is not given by the State schools), combined with the irrepressible rigour of a cast-iron system, have considerably encouraged the establishment of private schools.

WILLIAM G. TORR.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

REPLIES received from the MINISTER of EDUCATION, WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

In reply to the Questions asked by the Royal Commission on Secondary Education, I have the honour to answer as follows:—

1. The expression of the Educational Department of this Colony is that the education of boys and girls in the same day schools has worked exceedingly well, and to the advantage of the scholars.

This system has, however, only been in force in the Colony in a few schools under the control of this Department, and the largest number of scholars in any mixed school does not exceed 300.

In my opinion the conditions most favourable to the system are:—

As to age of scholars. Any age not exceeding 12 years.

As to size of school. I have no experience beyond a school of 300 children, in which the system works well.

2 to 8. There are at present no secondary or technical schools in the Colony under the control of this Department. There is, however, a high school for boys subsidised by public funds, and controlled by a board of Governors, partially appointed by the Government.

There are also numerous private schools in the Colony, but neither high school nor private schools have any relation to the elementary education controlled by my Department.

Two scholarships of the annual value of 50*l.* each, tenable for three years, are annually offered for competition among the scholars attending all elementary schools, the conditions being entry and residence at the high school.

9. I do not think there has recently been any increase in the number of private schools in the Colony, but I cannot speak positively, as my Department has no information on the subject.

S. H. PARKER,
Minister of Education.

QUEENSLAND.

Replies received from the Department of Public Instruction, Queensland.

The following are replies to the questions submitted to this Department:—

1. The number of primary schools under the Department of Public Instruction approaches 700, and in only 11 of these is there separate education for boys and for girls. In 16 schools girls and infants of both sexes are taught, and in 11 schools infants of both sexes are exclusively taught. Boys and girls are taught together in most of the schools, and that practice has obtained for over 30 years. The few existing schools for the separate education of boys and of girls, are an outcome, not of any intention to avoid mixed education, but of economic convenience in certain large centres of population. The opinion of inspectors and teachers as to the system is favourable, and parents are satisfied. Boys and girls are taught together till they leave school, at the age of 14 or 15, and the arrangement is found to be quite satisfactory.

2. Schools, six being for boys and four for girls, established under a special statute. They are not under the direction of the Secretary for Public Instruction, but are governed each by a body of trustees approved by the Governor in Council. Each school receives an annual endowment of 1,000*l.* from the consolidated revenue, making a total endowment of 10,000*l.* a year for Secondary Education. There is no relation of continuity between the education in the primary and in the secondary (grammar) schools, young children being admitted to the latter with attainments no higher than the second standard in a primary school.

3. The Minister for Public Instruction grants scholarships to primary school pupils that are able to pass a satisfactory examination in the work of the Fifth Standard, and are under 14 years of age. It has been the practice to make 120 scholarships annually available for award, entitling the holders to education free of charge at any grammar school endowed by the State for a period of three years. The money value of each scholarships is sixteen guineas a year, or a total of 50*l.* 8*s.*, and fees at that rate are paid to the trustees from money provided by a special vote of Parliament. This system has been in force for 20 years, and has been attended by excellent results; many boys whose parents were not in a position to bear the cost of Secondary Education, have, by means of those scholarships, been able to prepare themselves for a university career, in which they distinguished themselves as students, and are now holding positions of eminence and usefulness in the colony. The scholarships are eagerly sought after by parents, and, being competitive, they form a keen stimulus to the teachers and pupils of the primary schools.

4. Nothing has been done.

5. There is no provision for the training of secondary school teachers. The head masters and principal assistants in the grammar schools are graduates of British or colonial universities.

6. In addition to the provision referred to in Question 3 the grammar schools grant, each to its own students, a few scholarships annually entitling to education free of charge for one or more years. These are awarded by competition. The Government award three exhibitions to universities annually by competition. These are of the annual value of 100*l.* with a currency of three years, and are payable to a matriculated student while in attendance at a university approved by the Governor in Council. These are the only provisions for giving Secondary Education free of charge.

7. All Queensland students attending an Australian or other university have passed through one or other of the grammar schools.

8. No change.

9. There is no reason to suppose that there has been any considerable increase in the number of private schools.

(Signed) J. G. ANDERSON,
Under Secretary.

REPLIES received from Mr. CHARLES H. HODGES, Headmaster of the Townsville Grammar School, Queensland.

Queensland elementary schools are free; grammar schools have been opened in certain towns with help from the Government, of 2*l.* for every 1*l.* subscribed for buildings, and a subsidy of 1,000*l.* per annum. Until last year, the Government offered annually 120 scholarships to the pupils of primary schools (two-thirds to boys and one-third to girls), which entitle the winners to a free education for three years at a grammar school. The Education Department views the grammar schools as existing mainly for these scholars, and assumes no powers over them, demanding only a quarterly report on the conduct and industry of the scholars. In the original scheme, allowance for boarding was granted to those scholars who lived at a distance from a grammar school, but recent economies have cut this away, and the number of scholarships has been reduced by one-half.

1. As the number of girls' grammar schools is small, and the distances in Queensland are often very great, many of the scholarships won in North Queensland in years past have not been taken up. Accordingly, as the certificate entitles the pupil to enter "*any* school established "under the Act," we have for the last two years admitted into the Townsville Grammar School for Boys girls who have won the certificate. Up to the present time four girls have entered, and I have every reason to be satisfied with the result of the experiment. The limit of age for scholars is 14, and the girls are sufficiently advanced to be placed above the lowest forms, in which I should consider their presence undesirable. With a limited number, I am able to make special arrangements by which they are kept separate from the boys, except in the class-rooms, which they enter with the masters and leave before the boys. They have also a recreation room in my own house apart from the school proper. Under such conditions there seems to be no objection to the mixed school, but with a large number of girls of all ages and standards the case would be very different, and I think separate schools are certainly to be preferred.

2. The standards of elementary and secondary schools are about the same as in England. The only connexion between the two classes of school is that of the Government scholarships to which I have already referred.

3. The system undoubtedly sends to the grammar schools the best of the youth of the country, and although I venture to think that the limit of age is too high, considering the nature of the examination, and that better results might be produced by certain changes, these scholars have been the backbone of the grammar schools, and in many cases have come from humble circumstances to the highest positions in the State through the help thus afforded. My own school is small, and my experience limited, but Mr. Roe, of Brisbane, has had many years of successful work at the grammar school, and he reports as follows: "From the first "appearance of the primary school scholars, their influence has been "markedly for good." "In the primary schools, the competition for the "scholarships must stimulate work from the highest to the lowest "classes. Boys in the humblest circumstances see thereby, placed "within their reach, the highest education that this country, or in fact, "other countries, can give, and if they have in them intellect or "character which entitles them to a higher position than that into which "they are born, they set to work with a vigour which influences the

"forms in which they are placed. It is a mistake to suppose that these "scholarships are won for the most part by boys whose parents could "well afford to give them the higher education without such assistance; "it is an invidious task to pry into the means and circumstances of "parents, but from a careful analysis that I have made of the social "position of the parents of all boys at this school, I can honestly assert "that the majority of the scholarship boys come from a class that could not "possibly of themselves have offered to send them to a grammar school, "much less to a university. On the other hand, I should never wish to "see these prizes confined to any particular class; the fact of their "being open to all, removes from them the stigma of being in any way "a charity. The mixture of all classes in the school, where ability and "manliness, not birth or wealth, is the sole criterion of distinction, is of "the greatest advantage to all concerned. It is, no doubt, a mistake to "educate the ordinary boy above the circumstances into which he was "born; but to furnish steps by which any who have brains or character "may climb from the lowest rank to the highest eminence of the State, "is a work which all well-wishers of the country should feel it their "duty to aid." Mr. Roe states that more than 70 per cent. of the distinctions obtained by the school at public examinations and at the universities, have been won by these Government scholars.

It is perfectly true that we get excellent material by the present method, but in my opinion the strain which we are obliged to put upon these boys, to bring them up to the standard which others of their age who entered the school young have reached in certain subjects, is injurious.

6. In addition to the scholarships to grammar schools, the Queensland Government offer annually three open exhibitions of 100*l.* for three years, to be held at any university.

CHARLES H. HODGES,
Headmaster of the Townsville Grammar School,
Queensland.

NEW SOUTH WALES.

REPLIES received from the DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, New South Wales.

1. The plan works well, especially with children under 12 years of age. Boys and girls are separated only in schools with an average daily attendance of over 300 pupils.

2. The line is not sharply drawn. The superior public schools take up the work of Secondary Education, giving instruction in mathematics, Latin, and French. Subjoined is a copy of the regulations as to these superior schools:—

Regulations.—Superior Public Schools.

(10.) Any public school may be declared a superior public school, if, after due inquiry, it shall be found that the attendance thereat is sufficient to enable a class to be formed of not less that 20 pupils, who have been educated up to the standard that completes the course prescribed for a fourth class.

(11.) In addition to more advanced work in the ordinary subjects, lessons in other branches shall be given to the highest class as under:—

To boys.—In mathematics, Latin, science, and drawing.
To girls.—In French, drawing, and sanitary science.

Instruction may also be given in such other branches as the Minister may from time to time consider expedient.

(12.) Necessary text-books shall be supplied by the Minister.

(13.) In cases where the regular staff is unable to teach any prescribed subject efficiently, the Minister may employ a special teacher for such subject, and pay him such salary as he may deem expedient, provided that the special class so taught shall be drafted from the highest class, and contain not less than 20 pupils.

(14.) The course of instruction to be carried out in the highest class of a superior public school shall be that prescribed for a fifth class in the standard of proficiency; and such subjects shall be studied each year as may be prescribed annually for the junior or senior examinations of the Sydney University.

3. The system adopted may be seen from the regulations as to scholarships and bursaries appended :—

STATE SCHOOL AND UNIVERSITY BURSARIES.

Department of Public Instruction,
Sydney, 27th April 1891.

The Minister of Public Instruction has approved of the adoption of the following rules respecting State school and university bursaries, State school scholarships, and public high schools entrance examinations.

E. JOHNSON,
Under Secretary.

Examinations for Admission to Public High Schools and for State School Bursaries and Scholarships.

Examinations for admission to public high schools, as well as for scholarships and bursaries, shall be held half-yearly, in June and December; and at these examinations 30 scholarships and 20 bursaries may be awarded to those who gain the most marks and show the requisite proficiency.

(2.) These scholarships and bursaries shall be allotted half-yearly as follows:—

Scholarships.

15 (7 to boys and 8 to girls in June; 8 to boys and 7 to girls in December), Sydney High School.
5, Bathurst Girls' High School.
10 (5 to boys and 5 to girls), Maitland High School.

Bursaries.

10 half bursaries for metropolitan and sub-metropolitan children tenable at the Sydney High, Grammar, or Superior Schools.
5 full bursaries (2 to boys and 3 to girls in June; 3 to boys and 2 to girls in December) for country children tenable at the same schools.
2 full bursaries in June, and 3 in December; Maitland Girls' High School.
2 full bursaries in June, and 3 in December; Bathurst Girls' High School.
5 full bursaries; Maitland Boys' High School.

In the case of children whose parents reside within convenient access of the country schools only half bursaries will be awarded, and no child so residing will be permitted to compete for a Sydney bursary. *Vice versâ*, no Sydney child may compete for a country bursary.

(3.) Every applicant for either a scholarship or a bursary must state in his application what school he intends to enter.

(4.) Country children are expected to attend the high school nearest by a practicable route to their places of residence. In exceptional circumstances, however, the Minister may, on application being made, sanction a departure from this rule. The application should accompany the form notifying intention to compete.

(5.) There shall be two groups of subjects for examinations, one for scholarships and one for bursaries. They are—

For Scholarships.

(1.) *Grammar.*—To parse the more difficult words in a passage of about six lines; to distinguish the true subjects and the true predicates in sentences; to correct inelegant or ungrammatical expressions; to exemplify the correct usage of picked words.

(2.) *Dictation.*—To write a passage of about 14 lines, dictated from some standard author or from an ordinary newspaper, with correct spelling and punctuation.

(3.) *Arithmetic.*—To solve questions in proportion, vulgar and decimal fractions, interest, and discount.

NOTE.—In the case of girls, interest and discount to be omitted.

(4.) *French* (for girls) } As prescribed for fifth classes in public schools
Latin (for boys) } (first half-year).

(5.) *Euclid* (for boys only).—Book I., definitions, &c., propositions 1 to 20 inclusive.

(6.) *Algebra* (for boys only).—First four rules.

For Bursaries.

(1.) *Grammar.*—As for scholarships.

(2.) *Dictation.*—As for scholarships.

(3.) *Arithmetic.*—As for scholarships.

(4.) *History.*—Henry VIII. to Victoria, inclusive, as prescribed for fourth classes in public schools. History of Austria as taught in public schools.

(5.) *Geography.*—Europe, Asia, America, and Australia, as prescribed for third and fourth classes in public schools.

(6.)—*Drawing and Music.*—As prescribed for third and fourth classes in public schools.

Candidates shall be eligible for admission to a high school who pass satisfactorily in the subjects numbered 1, 2, and 3, and in one other subject selected from Nos. 4, 5, and 6 in either group.

(6.) A scholarship will be tenable for three years, subject to good reports from teachers, and will entitle a pupil to a free grant of text-books, and to free education in a State high school. A bursary will be tenable for three years, subject to good reports from teachers, and will entitle a pupil to a free grant of text-books, and to free education in Sydney High School, in a Sydney superior public school, or in the Sydney Grammar School, or in one of the country high schools. When a pupil holding a bursary must necessarily board away from home in order to attend one of these schools, an allowance not exceeding 30*l.* a year, in addition to free education and text-books, will be made.

(7.) No pupil will be awarded a bursary whose parents or guardians are in a position to pay for his education; but, subject to this proviso, the examination for bursaries will be open to all boys and girls under 14 years of age who have attended a public school with reasonable regularity for the two years preceding the date of examination.

(8.) The examination for scholarships will be open to all boys and girls under 14 years of age.

(9.) Candidates who compete for a bursary or scholarship more than once will be eligible for a bursary or scholarship only for the period remaining out of three years from the date of their first competition; and no candidate will be permitted to compete after having attended a high school.

(10.) The fee to be charged at a high school shall be 2*l.* 2*s.** per quarter, payable in advance.

(11.) The fees shall in no case be the property of the teachers, but shall be forwarded to the cashier for payment into the Consolidated Revenue Fund.

(12.) The parents or guardians of candidates for bursaries or scholarships must fill in and forward to the under secretary the necessary forms of application, at least six weeks before the date of examination. Such forms may be obtained at this office.

STATE BURSARIES FOR UNIVERSITY EDUCATION.

(1.) Ten bursaries, six to boys and four for girls, tenable for three years at the Sydney University, will be awarded annually on the position of candidates at the March Matriculation Examination.

(2.) Candidates must be under 18 years of age, and must have attended a State high school, a public school, or, as State bursars, the Sydney Grammar School, for the year previous to examination, and they must produce satisfactory testimonials of character from the head masters of the schools they have attended.

(3.) They must satisfy the Minister of Public Instruction that their own and their parents' means are unequal to the expense of the university education. To a successful competitor who resides at such distance from the university as to be unable to travel to and fro daily, a full bursary will be awarded, while to one who resides in the metropolitan or sub-metropolitan inspectorial district, within easy access of the university, part of a bursary only will be awarded. The candidate's status, as to whether he can be deemed eligible for a full bursary or part of a bursary, will be decided by the Minister before his admission to examination.

(4.) A bursary shall entitle pupils to text-books and free education, together with an allowance not exceeding 20*l.* per annum to those who need not board away from home, and not exceeding 50*l.* to those who must necessarily do so.

(5.) Every bursar must matriculate at the university and attend lectures, and he shall continue to hold the bursary only on condition that his conduct be good, and that he pass creditably the examinations at the end of the first and second years after his matriculation.

(6.) The parents or guardians of the candidates must fill in and forward to the under secretary the necessary forms of application for university bursaries at least six weeks before the date of the matriculation examination. Such forms may be obtained at this office.

4. All technical education in this colony is under the Department of Public Instruction. Teachers in training receive regular instruction in manual work. Manual training classes have been established in connexion with the high schools and the superior public schools in the large centres of population. Drawing is taught in all schools. Female teachers in training are taught cookery, and cookery classes for girls are established in connexion with the large public schools.

5. Arrangements are made for the students in training to matriculate to attend the lectures at the university, and to gain degrees.

* Recently raised to 3*l.* 3*s.*

6. Answered by 3.

7. The university authorities do not possess sufficient information to enable this question to be answered.

8. No.

9. No.

VICTORIA.

(1.) Replies received from the Education Department, Melbourne, Victoria.

General Remarks.

There is no public system of Secondary Education in operation in the Colony of Victoria. The provision of Secondary Education, and the arrangements in regard to it, are left to private enterprise, except in so far as the subjects of such education come within the range of those provided for in the technical schools, or are taught, for fees, under the head of "Extra Subjects," in the public elementary (State) schools, by the ordinary teachers employed in such schools.

Technical Schools.

The technical schools, while primarily under the control and management of local committee or councils, are subsidised by the State, by the payment of grants in aid. The following are the chief points in which the control of these schools by the State is provided for:—

(*a.*) The Minister of Public Instruction may appoint one or more representatives on any of the councils.

(*b.*) The schools are open to inspection by any officer appointed for the purpose by the Minister.

(*c.*) The approval of the Minister has to be obtained for the appointment of every teacher of a subsidised subject.

(*d.*) The course of study in each subject is defined by a syllabus approved by the Minister.

(*e.*) The amount and efficiency of the work done is controlled and tested by examinations conducted under the supervision of the Education Department; and the examiners are appointed by the Minister.

Extra Subjects.

The terms and conditions upon which instruction in "Extra Subjects" is given, are shown in the attached copy of Regulation No. IV., under the "Education Act, 1890." The instruction, so far as it goes, is reported to be of a satisfactory character; but, neither in amount and extent, nor in the number of pupils taught, is it of much comparative significance in connexion with the large question of Secondary Education. The following tables furnish particulars of the instruction given:—

Year.	Number of Schools in which "Extra Subjects" were Taught.	Fees received for "Extra Subjects."
		£ s. d.
1888 - -	104	2,238 2 6
1889 - -	101	2,041 12 6
1890 - -	109	2,361 1 5
1891 - -	106	2,446 19 10
1892 - -	107	2,215 14 9

Year.	Extra Subjects Taught.	No. of Pupils.
1892	Book-keeping	1,176
	Algebra	773
	Euclid	575
	French	437
	Latin	488
	Science	95
	Physics	64
	German	62
	Physiology	60
	Painting	48
	History	45
	Mensuration	35
	Shorthand	32
	Advanced English	30
	Elocution	17
	Geometry	10
	Botany	8
	Mechanical Engineering	4
	Physical Geography	2

REPLIES under the "Heads of Information which it is desired to obtain from the British Colonies."

1. The education of boys and girls in the same day schools, and in the same classes, is the practice in connexion with the system of public elementary education in force in the colony. The plan is found to work satisfactorily.

2. The subjects of elementary education taught free of charge in the State schools (public elementary system) are:—

Reading,
Writing,
Arithmetic,
Grammar,
Geography,
Drill, and, where practicable, singing, drawing, and gymnastics.
Lessons from some recognised lesson books in the laws of health, and from some recognised temperance lesson books (in case of children over nine years of age); and
Sewing and needlework in addition for girls.

No definite line between schools for elementary and Secondary Education is drawn in the case of private schools.

3. To enable pupils of the State schools to continue their education at the grammar schools and colleges, &c., under private management, and at the Melbourne University, there has been, until lately, a system of scholarships and exhibitions awarded by the State as the result of competitive examinations.

The original number of scholarships awarded annually was 200. In 1891 the number was reduced to 100, for the reasons that the numbers of pupils who presented themselves at the annual examinations were comparatively small, and that many of the successful candidates were found to be hardly prepared to continue their studies at the secondary schools. In 1892, the number was still further reduced to 75, on account of the need for retrenchment in expenditure, and this need becoming still more urgent in the following year, it was decided to discontinue the system for the present.

Since this decision was arrived at, some of the secondary schools and colleges, under private management, have set apart scholarships for competition by State school pupils.

With regard to the results of the system tried, it may be pointed out that the holders of State school scholarships and exhibitions have, on the whole, been remarkably successful in securing the leading positions and prizes of the grammar schools, &c., attended by them, and in gaining university scholarships and degrees, and high places in the honour class lists. From this point of view, the system has certainly worked well. As regards a more general view, the complete system, when suspended, had been in operation for too short a time to speak with confidence of the results actually achieved. The main object, viz., to ensure that every pupil, boy or girl, who showed sufficient aptitude, in capacity and earnestness, for a higher education, should have a reasonable chance of securing such education, would seem to have been in a fair way of accomplishment.

4. In the technical schools (*see* the information given above under "General Remarks"), the only subjects of general education for which grants are made by the State are those which have an intimate connexion with technical subjects.

5. The State does not make any provision for the training of secondary school teachers, nor is any special provision for such training made in the colony in connexion with the University of Melbourne, the only university, or otherwise. The possession of a degree (or higher distinction) of a university, on the part of the teachers, principal and subordinate, of the schools and colleges under private and proprietary management, is the rule, and would seem to be an indispensable condition of success.

The examinations prescribed by the Education Department in connexion with the requirements for classification in honours (Regulation V., 7, copy attached) provide a means of testing the proficiency of teachers of State schools in secondary subjects, and in the general training required by a teacher.

6. Secondary Education is not given free of charge in this colony. *See* "General Remarks" at the commencement of this memorandum.

7. The proportion of students who enter the university without having previously passed through a secondary school is small. All such students have to pass the matriculation examination of the university (the subjects of which are those of a Secondary Education), and those who do not pass through a secondary school receive the necessary instruction by way of private tuition; and sometimes, though rarely, from State school teachers.

8. With the exception of the institution of scholarships in the year 1886, no material change in regard to Secondary Education has taken place since the year 1865. The grounds and results of the change in question are indicated in the reply to query 3 above.

9. There has not been any considerable increase recently in the number of private schools in this colony.

IV.—*Fees for Extra Subjects.*

1. Fees payable by parents for subjects not included in the Third Schedule to the Education Act, 1890, herein called extra subjects, will be at weekly rates not exceeding the sums mentioned in the following scale:—

Latin	One shilling.
French	One shilling.
German	One shilling.
Natural Science	Sixpence.

Euclid	Sixpence.
Algebra	Sixpence.
Trigonometry	Sixpence.
Mensuration	Threepence.
Bookkeeping	Threepence.

For any approved subject not included in the above list the fee to be charged will be at the discretion of the teacher, but must not in any case exceed one shilling per week.

2. A percentage, not exceeding 5 per cent., is appropriated for payments by results. The amount thus appropriated will remain in the hands of the head teacher till the school is inspected, when, if the inspector is satisfied with the instruction, it will be returned to the teachers; otherwise it must be remitted to the Department for distribution amongst those in whose schools the instruction has been found satisfactory.

3. Instruction in extra subjects must not be given so as to interrupt the course of instruction in accordance with Regulation I.

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT, VICTORIA.

EDUCATION ACT, 1890.—ALTERATION OF REGULATIONS.

V.—*Examination and Classification of Teachers.*

7. The requirements for classification in honours will be as under:—

For Second Honours.

(1.) To have obtained one of the first four literary qualifications prescribed for a third-class teacher under the Public Service Act, viz.:—

(i.) To hold a certificate of competency and to have also passed the matriculation examination at the Melbourne University.

(ii.) To hold a certificate of competency, and also hold two of the Department's science certificates.

(iii.) To have obtained the trained teacher's certificate subsequently to 31st December 1875.

(iv.) To have obtained a trained teacher's certificate of first or second class under the Board of Education; and

(2.) To hold a degree of the Melbourne University in Arts, Science, or Laws; or to have passed at the Melbourne University the first ordinary examination for the degree of Bachelor of Arts; or to have passed in four of the subjects prescribed for one of the ordinary examination in arts, at least two of which must be passed at one examination, and the remaining subject or subjects at one examination held in the same or the next succeeding year.

(3.) To have passed a successful examination in the theory of teaching, embracing—

(*a.*) The leading principles of education; the faculties, their training and development; habit and character.

(*b.*) School organisation and management; methods of teaching; notes of lessons.

(4.) To have satisfactorily discharged the duties of a classified teacher for at least two years, and to be recommended for classification in honours in a special report by the Inspector-General or by some other inspector of schools deputed to report on the candidate's application for such classification.

For First Honours.

(1.) To have obtained second-class honours, and to hold a degree of the Melbourne University in Arts, Science, or Laws, or to have passed at the

Melbourne University the second or the third ordinary examination for the degree of Bachelor of Arts; or to have obtained second-class honours, and to have passed in four of the subjects prescribed for the second ordinary examination in the course for the degree of Bachelor of Arts, at least two of which must be passed at one examination, and the remaining subject or subjects at one examination held in the same or the next succeeding year.

(2.) To have passed a satisfactory examination in the theory and history of education.

(3.) To be recommended for classification in first-class honours in a special report by the Inspector-General or by some other inspector of schools deputed to report on the candidate's application for such classification, and, if males, to have satisfactorily conducted a classified school for at least two years.

Provided that the candidate, unless he hold a trained teacher's certificate, shall have passed at some examination of the University of Melbourne—(*a*) in Latin or Greek, and also (*b*) in mathematics, as in any ordinary examination for the completion of a year, or in algebra and geometry, as in the matriculation examination. Provided also, that no candidate shall be awarded first honours on the same examination as that on which he has been awarded second honours.

Application for permission to attend the University examination at the reduced fee must be made to the Secretary, on or before 7th September in each year, on a form which will be supplied on application at the Education Office.

(2.) Replies received from J. Reford Corr, M.A., LL.B., Head Master of the Methodist Ladies' College, Hawthorn, Melbourne, Victoria.

1. From 1873 to 1876 I was employed in State school work, and had opportunities of seeing the mixed system in two large schools of the primary order. The classes contained from 40 to 60 pupils, and no more difficulty was experienced in managing the mixed class than would be in a unisexual class of the same size.

From an economic point of view, the system is an advantageous one. From a moral aspect, no evil is likely to result if the following conditions be observed:—

(*a.*) Separate playgrounds and offices.
(*b.*) Boys and girls enter and leave separately.
(*c.*) Boys and girls sit in separate tiers of desks.
(*d.*) Ordinary care in supervision during lessons.

Speaking generally, I think that the mixed system is desirable in proportion as its conditions approximate to the *bisexual* system, which is preferable, in my opinion, for these reasons:—

(*a.*) It admits of the recognition of the inherent difference between the natures and dispositions of the sexes; and so
(*b.*) It allows instruction of a character suitable to one sex and not to the other, moral and otherwise.
(*c.*) It is more refining for girls, especially after the age of 12 or thereabouts.

2. In Victoria there is no definite line of demarcation between primary and secondary schools. The programme work of the State schools is primary, and the instruction free in the programme subjects, but most large State schools have paying classes in secondary subjects, and in some of these pupils are prepared for matriculation.

On the other hand, the ostensibly secondary schools have, owing to pressure from parents who do not wish to use the State schools, gradually lowered the age of admission until in almost every case they take charge

of the pupils' education from nearly the beginning, if not altogether. There are only two or three schools which professedly train boys with a view to transference to a larger school at the age of 12.

3. There is therefore no "system" for the transference of pupils from one class of schools to another.

A former Minister of Education endeavoured to introduce something of this kind by selecting, upon examination, 200 State school pupils annually, and paying their fees for three years in one of the higher class schools. This has, however, now ceased. The scheme was taken advantage of by many who were quite able to pay the ordinary fees, and was seldom found to be availed of by poor students.

Many private and public schools have of late begun to attract the most promising State scholars by means of scholarships.

4. The standard of technical education is very low in Victorian schools. It is generally taken up after school life in connection with schools of design, and in classes at the Working Men's College, founded by the late Hon. Francis Ormond.

5. There is not any training school for teachers in Victoria, either primary or secondary. Secondary teachers get no other training than is obtained from the supervision of the head of the school. An attempt is now being made by the Secondary Teachers' Association to provide for a more systematic method.

The University does not recognise pedagogics.

6. Only to the extent of the scholarships mentioned in Answer 3.

7. Roughly speaking, about one-fifth of the students of the University have been prepared by private classes.

8. Since 1865 the matriculation examination has gradually come to take the place of a final school examination, and parents attach an abnormal value to it, irrespective of whether pupils are proceeding to the University or not.

This outside pressure has caused the schools to restrict their programme to the subjects of this examination, to the exclusion of many subjects which might properly be regarded as essential to school education. To that extent the result is unsatisfactory; though, on the other hand, the change has caused more uniformity and greater thoroughness in the subjects taught than previously was the case.

9. No. On the contrary, there has recently been a great decrease, as many parents who formerly patronised the private schools have been compelled for financial reasons to avail themselves of the free State schools.

(3.) Replies received from the Rev. Ambrose T. Wilson, late headmaster of the Church of England Grammar School, Melbourne.

Sir,

I have the honour to forward the subjoined answers to questions under heads of information which it is desired to obtain from the British colonies (Australia).

Introductory.

I may premise that I believe the colonies are affording a very valuable set of object lessons upon many aspects of education. Being, in such matters, quite democratic, and unhampered by tradition or any settled public opinion, they are very free to try experiments and they try them freely. So far as Australia is concerned, out of six colonies (or seven, if New Zealand is included) there are no two in which the law, even of primary education, is the same, and even in the same colony changes are made and unmade with great facility. At the same time the State interference is in most cases least in secondary school education. The universities and elementary schools are in the hands of Government.

The secondary schools in Victoria, South Australia, Tasmania, and, I believe, West Australia, are entirely in the hands of the denominations and of private enterprise, while in New South Wales and Queensland, Government has one central secondary school, private enterprise being left to do the rest.

Thus it follows that, for the most part throughout Australia, the Government control of Secondary Education is indirect, upwards through the elementary schools and downwards through the universities.

I may add that I am inclined to doubt the permanency of this rather anomalous independence of the higher schools, especially as, in many cases, these leading schools have depended for their origin largely upon Government grants in money and land.

In my answers to the questions in detail I am to be considered as referring, unless otherwise specified, to the colony of Victoria, because it was there that my work for eight years lay.

Mixed schools.

1. What is your experience of the education of boys and girls in the same day schools, or in the same day classes, and what is your opinion of the working of the system and as to the condition most favourable to it as regards age of scholars, size of schools?

Assistance to organisation.

I have personally found the idea very attractive in theory. It seems at first sight likely to increase the ease of organising classes; the increase of numbers would admit of a finer graduation of scholars according to their ability and advancement. This is so, however, only if boys and girls are taught in the same classes.

If the admixture only extended to their being taught in the same building, while the classes were kept distinct, then it would do this much good, that the staff of teachers could be used to greater advantage, than with smaller numbers, by being sent from class to class readily.

The question also arises, Will this not be a further advantage to the taught by creating a valuable emulation between the sexes?

Emulation of little account.

In spite of the *a priori* probability, I believe that the mixed school system makes little difference in this way. Experience seems to show that it is only at the first, when novelty accentuates the distinction, that children take much notice of such comparisons, and that, as a rule, the different occupations and out-of-school life of boys and girls are held by the children themselves to account for any difference in results, when they are noticed, while in a very short time they grow so accustomed to work in common that they forget such comparisons, and that it follows that no better emulation exists, in the long run, between boy and girl in school, than between boy and boy.

Moral risks.

As then the stimulus of emulation is probably a negligable quantity, it remains to ask, Are the benefits to organisation and teaching power so great as to outweigh the ethical and social risks?

What is the extent of such risks?

When children are very young they may be considered, under reasonable discipline, almost *nil*. They may be left out of count in the kindergarten. In the older schools, I believe the amount of risk depends to a very large extent on the tone of the society, or of the grade of the community from which the children are drawn, and especially on the home training.

The most real experiment in this line, has, I believe, been made in America. I believe also that a somewhat long experience leaves their experts not so enamoured of it as they used to be.

In Victoria the mixed system prevails so far as Government control extends, that is to say, in the elementary schools and in the university (the latter including the medical schools and its dissecting rooms). I believe it works fairly well in the university, except on the medical side.

In the elementary schools there is no doubt, judging from its present working, that on ethical grounds, where it is possible, the sexes should be kept in separate premises.

In the secondary schools in Victoria the method is unknown, except in one or two second-rate schools, where it is said to work well. By this it is meant that, while no insuperable difficulties of management arise, the method is found to conduce to greater cheapness of education. After eight years' experience among the young people of Victoria, I should hesitate to try the experiment on social and ethical grounds. At the same time, I cannot be certain that the general adoption of the mixed school system might not be itself the means of developing after a time such a self-respecting tone among the young people as would be a justification for continuing it. I may add that, as to the present situation, I base what I say not on theory or impressions, but on facts.

2. Where is the line drawn between schools for elementary and for Secondary Education respectively?

Distinction in fees and subjects, and social status.

The difference is one partly of fees, partly of subjects of education, partly of social status. If the parent wishes his child educated for nothing, and is prepared to waive the social question, he sends him to a State school, where, so long as he keeps within the public elementary school curriculum, he has no fees to pay. This is not unfrequently done by people in good positions, especially in the more distant country towns, and in times of financial depression. When the scholarship system was in vogue (*see* following question) it proved very attractive to business men. When a child in a State school reaches the VI. Standard, he can then, if it be a fully-equipped State school, and if his father wishes, learn extras, such as Latin, French, Algebra and Euclid. For these subjects a fee is charged, not nearly so large, however, as that payable in a secondary school. It should be stated that public opinion among the upper classes is against the use of the State schools by their own people; not, however, so strongly as in England.

Extras in elementary schools.

Intermediate school in New South Wales.

In New South Wales Government has established an intermediate school, to prepare the more advanced State scholars for the universities. This acts, to some extent, as an opposition to the secondary schools. It has not been done in Victoria, nor, so far as I am aware, in any other Australian colony.

3. What system has been tried, and with what results, for the passing of scholars from one class of school to another; and for giving aid to poor scholars of promise?

11 exhibitions per annum.

33 exhibitioners.

Under this head the experience of Victoria is instructive. When I reached the colony in 1885 I found a system in operation whereby eleven exhibitions were awarded annually, by competitive examination, among all the public elementary schools in the colony, boys and girls competing on the same level. This was very valuable. The exhibitioners, each of whom might keep his exhibition for three years at school (taking it on later to the university), were thus 33 in number at any one time. They were the pick of the brains of the lower classes of the colony, and were much sought after by the better schools and generally did very well; the exhibition was in value 50*l.* a year.

200 scholarships per annum.

600 scholars.

Attempt to control secondary schools a failure.

When Dr. Pearson was Minister of Education, he inaugurated, I believe in 1887, an enlarged system of scholarships, much reduced in amount; 200 of these were awarded each year; the tenure was for three years, so that there were, when the system was in full swing, 600 state scholars at one time in the secondary schools of the colony. The value was 10*l.*, which fully paid the reduced fee charged by the schools. These scholars had to pass annually a qualifying examination in order to retain their scholarships. Through the subjects set by the Department for these annual examinations of their scholars the Education Department hoped to control the work of the leading secondary schools. This expectation proved abortive. These scholars, with their special work, soon became a mere excrescence on the regular and more generous curriculum of the schools; the quality of many, especially of the country candidates, among such a number proved very inferior, and their general tone was no benefit to the school.

The State, for its part, found that they were accomplishing no more than could be done by the higher power of their own State schools, while the burden on the budget was considerable, and they were educating for nothing, often, the children of the well-to-do. So soon as depression began clamouring for retrenchment the scholarships were among the first things to go.

There are, however, always a certain number of children passing from the elementary to the secondary schools, by the individual action of parents, who send them to a State school to be grounded, and finding them promising, decide to give them a profession, only to be gained through the universities, or who send them, for social polish, to a school of good social tone for six months to two years.

4. What has been found to be the best way of bringing technical into proper relation with general education in your secondary schools?

No technical education in secondary schools.

There is, practically, no technical education in the secondary schools in Victoria. The tendency has been for the Government to provide technical education in connexion with the "Schools of Mines" in several of the larger centres. The demand for technical instruction is not great, and as the above partial provision is made by Government, whose resources defy competition, the secondary schools, finding no great demand among their pupils, do not trouble about the question.

The Melbourne Grammar School, during my headmastership, was the only school which made an effort to stimulate the demand by supplying the teaching.

This was done in the following ways:—

An experiment in that direction. Carpentering.

a. There was a carpenter's shop; this was enlarged and refitted, and everything was done to popularise it, with the result that, at the best time, 50 or 60 boys were learning, in their play-hours, in classes of eight to 10. Those who persevered turned out good joiners. The fee was made as low as possible.

Practical engineering.

b. An engineering shop was fitted up, where fitting, foundry work, pattern-making, drawing, and surveying were taught on the system pursued at the Crystal Palace School of Practical Engineering. The work was inspected several times by different experts, and received the highest commendation. It reached some popularity at first, as many as 12 students attending the classes at one time; but, with the growth of the financial depression, the numbers fell off, for it was necessary to charge rather a high fee for the separate instruction, and, on the other hand, surveyors became a drug in the market, while nearly all the engineering in the colony is in the hands of the Railway Department, who have their own provision for engineering training.

Practical chemistry.

c. Practical Chemistry.—This had been learnt by only a few boys at a high fee. The fee was divided by six; whereupon the numbers learning multiplied by 10, so that as many as 60 boys at one time were learning practical chemistry.

As a general result of this experience, I believe that technical work is of a nature to be very attractive to boys. If it were taught without extra fee, or at a fee that was really low, the numbers learning would probably be large, especially if the work formed part of the curriculum of the regular hours; indeed, it would then, probably, become necessary to fix a limit of age, below which boys should not be allowed to leave literary or mathematical for technical work.

5. What provision exists for the training of secondary school teachers?

No training for masters in secondary schools.

The only training of teachers is carried on in the Government training colleges. Some of the teachers so trained find their way into the lower ranks of the secondary schools; these may work their way up fairly high if very successful. The majority of the masters in secondary schools receive their education in a Home or Colonial university, and their training, chiefly from the stress of circumstances, in the class-room.

6. How far is Secondary Education given free of charge in your colony and how has the system worked?

State scholarships.

The answer to this question depends upon those to 2 and 3. The only systematic free Secondary Education has been enjoyed by State scholars and exhibitioners. The State gave them scholarships; certain trusted secondary schools had the privilege of taking charge of the education of the State scholars at a fee less by more than a half than their ordinary fee. This reduced fee was covered by the State scholarship; so that the education was practically costless. I have explained above that the system has been a failure, and has come to an end. I am not, however, to be understood as thinking that this failure is due to the nature of things; but rather to certain defects in the local surroundings and the particular methods adopted in the particular case. I believe it might, by the exercise of judgment and care, be made to work with great success; and I noticed signs of the possibility of considerable stimulus being given in this way to the higher work of schools. The only other tendencies towards free education in Victoria were by the medium of scholarships offered by the school itself, or by various means that had been devised for reducing the fees.

Annihilated fee.

Failure of the system not in the nature of things.

7. What proportion of students enter your universities without having previously passed through a secondary school?

These are of two classes:—

(*a.*) Those from private tuition. These are few, and of them—some, at least—have spent some time at a secondary school before seeking the tutor.

Private tuition.

(*b.*) Those who come from the higher ranks of those comparatively few "State schools" where any serious effort is made to teach those "extra subjects" that were mentioned above (Question 2). While the 600 "scholarships" were in existence, there were very few, nearly all the aspirants from "the ranks" to the university being drafted through the secondary schools; but now that the "scholarships" have ceased to be, there are probably a good many more.

State school children.

The total proportion will be unlikely to be a large one even now; yet if the State chose to develope the higher teaching of its schools it might readily become a considerable number.

8. I did not reach Victoria till 20 years after the date mentioned, and have no means of answering this question.

9. There have, for some time, been a number of private schools in Victoria, and they seem to increase in numbers. I am speaking now chiefly of boys' schools. This is due partly (*a*) to weakness in the position of the public schools, and partly (*b*) to the tone of the community.

Weakness of public school position.

a.—I. The public schools having absolutely no endowments in money, while their large buildings and grounds involve them in a heavy expenditure, depend for their existence directly upon the members; and living from hand to mouth, are not able, as, with even a small fixed endowment, they would be, to set such definite standards of perfection as would differentiate them from private schools.

No endowment.

Farming system.

II. This want of endowment has another detrimental effect. There is, attaching to the management, a large money risk. This the governors—naturally enough, no doubt—refuse to touch. It is, therefore, put upon the head-master or principal in each case. Every leading educational institution in Victoria is, therefore, "farmed," with, perhaps, one exception. This is detrimental to the well-being of the schools in various ways. Not only is the financial position of the head-master rendered precarious, and his anxieties indefinitely increased, and a vast amount of financial work and thought mixed up with his strictly educational duties, but in the eyes of the community at large each of these farmed institutions appears, often most erroneously, to exist solely for the personal

profit of the farming individual. Hence it follows that the public schools are, in the eyes of the public, nothing more than large private schools.

Their prestige is greatly interfered with; the public ignore the educational resources which are being stored up in them, through the improvement in their appliances effected by the enterprise of the management, and through the large capitation fees paid by the principal to his school council; and, at the same time, are hindered by this very fact from providing them such endowments as would enable the mischievous system to be done away with.

b. Another cause for the prevalence of the private school is to be found in the parochialism and individualism of the colonial parent.

Tendency of parents to parochialism.

His parochialism leads him to support the institutions in his own district or suburb for choice, since intercolonial jealousy has its echo in inter-municipal suspicion and antagonism.

Individualism.

His individualism leads the average parent to estimate a school entirely and exclusively in the light of the unit whom he is educating. *Πάντων μέτρον μειράκιον.* He has usually no thought of education in general. I have known a man, by diligent canvassing, get himself elected on a school council solely with the desire of furthering the interests of his son then at that school.

On this basis it is easy to understand why many parents should prefer a private school. There the numbers are rather smaller, so that they fall into the mistake of thinking that the boy will receive more "individual attention." There it is easier to get prizes, or to find a place in the cricket eleven or the football twenty; there the reports are more laudatory, and the management has more time to call upon individual parents.

Traditional prestige as yet unformed.

Lastly, the community is so young that there has been no time yet for that traditional prestige to grow up round any of the public schools, or that family connexion which is, in the case of many of the home public schools, so marked a feature, and so valuable a support.

I have, &c.

AMBROSE J. WILSON.

Hanford Vicarage, Stoke-on-Trent,
July 4th, 1894.

(4.) REPLIES received from MR. THOMAS PALMER, Headmaster of University High School, Melborne.

1. Having had ample opportunity of observing the results of educating boys and girls together in the same day schools and in the same day classes, I have no hesitation in giving my opinion in favour of the system. It is in existence at the University High School. Some ten years ago I believe the system was first introduced into a secondary school, when I made the innovation in connection with the South Melbourne College, of which I was the principal till quite recently. The practice of teaching boys and girls in the same classes is worthyof the highest commendation. It is productive of healthy emulation. The boys invariably treat the opposite sex with proper respect and the presence of the girls exercises a refining influence on the boys. It has the further advantage of imposing the necessity of a high moral demeanour on the part of the teachers.

As regards the question of age I can only say that it does not seem to me to materially alter the case. In the University High School we have mixed classes of all ages from six or seven years to 17 or 18 years of age. Both sexes are taught together right up the matriculation and post

matriculation standards; and I may add that the system is continued at the University, where lectures and examinations are open to men and women students alike.

Nor, again, does the size of the school affect the question; for a larger school implies a larger staff and supervision commensurate with the requirements.

2. There is no absolute line of demarcation between elementary or primary and secondary schools. Primary education up to a certain standard is given free by the State. The difference between our State schools and other schools is that the former are free and the latter not free. The instruction given in State schools is however of so excellent a quality that any school with a reputation, other than a State school, is bound to give something more than an elementary education. The standard aimed at in most of our secondary schools is that fixed by the requirements for the matriculation examination in the Melbourne University. In the best secondary schools there are classes in which the pupils study for honours at matriculation.

3. There has been no system in vogue for transferring scholars from one class of school to another. Some few years ago an attempt was made to form some kind of link between the primary schools and the university, by means of a system of scholarships awarded by the State to the best pupils in their schools. Those who were awarded scholarships had the privilege of attending some approved grammar school or college for three years, after which period they had the right of competing for a small number of exhibitions which carried them through a university course. This practice has been entirely abandoned owing to the financial necessities of the Government. Speaking with some authority on the question, for I believe that more scholarship holders selected my school as the one at which they would pursue their studies than any other school, I would unhesitatingly say that there were many grave faults in the administration of the system of scholarships though not in the system itself.

1st. The allowance made by the Government was insufficient and had the tendency to reduce fees.

2nd. It made the State schools attractive to the detriment of good private schools. Many parents quite able to pay for the education of their children kept their children at the State schools in the hope of their gaining a scholarship. Failure to gain a scholarship was accepted by parents as evidence that their children were unfitted for a college or university career.

3rd. The number of scholarships given was excessive, being 200 per year and tenable for three years.

4th. It resulted in about 400 boys and girls being brought to a stage of intellectual advancement sufficient for entrance into our university and then left them there.

4. Technical education is left to the various schools of mines which are established in the mining centres, to schools of design which usually form an adjunct of local Mechanics' Institutes, and to such institutions as the Working Men's College. Science teaching is now rapidly improving in most secondary schools. The science teaching includes elementary instructions in physics, physiology, chemistry and botany.

5. No provision exists for the training of teachers not engaged in state school teaching. An attempt was made last year by the Victoria Institute of schoolmasters to get a Secondary Teachers' Registration Bill introduced into the Victoria Parliament, in which provision was made for such training as a preliminary step to registration. The proposed Bill was modelled on a proposed British measure.

6. Secondary education is not given free of charge in the colony.

7. Not more than five per cent. of the university students enter without having previously passed through a secondary school.

8. No material change in the system, or rather want of system, of secondary education has taken place since 1865.

9. There has been an increase in tho number of private schools in the colony, due mainly to increasing competition or to the natural growth of the Colony.

THOMAS PALMER, M.A., LL.B.,
Head Master, University High School.

NEW ZEALAND.

REPLIES received from the DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, New Zealand.

1. The question appears to refer not exclusively to secondary schools. In the primary public schools of New Zealand boys and girls are commonly taught in the same classes. In large schools the younger children are taught together, but from about the third standard upward boys and girls are taught in separate rooms. In the smaller schools they are taught together at every stage. There are very few absolutely separate primary schools for girls. If there were no question of cost I think I should prefer separate classes for all children above the age of eight or nine. With respect to refinement the girls perhaps are to some slight extent losers where they cannot have separate classes, but I do not think that their loss in this respect or in any other is to be compared with what boys and girls must lose if for the sake of separation they are taught by two incompetent teachers instead of one competent teacher. If a school is large enough to have 30 or 40 boys and 30 or 40 girls in each standard it can afford to give separate instruction.

In the secondary schools I prefer complete separation, and such separation may be said to be the rule in New Zealand. The exceptions, and the most important difficulty emerging therefrom, are stated in the following extract from my last report presented to the Minister of Education in May, 1894:—

"My experience leads me to believe that schools where, on the ground of economy, it is found necessary to teach boys and girls in the same classes, suffer in efficiency in a way that I should not have anticipted. A certain shyness, explicable enough when one comes to think of it, imposes a reticence on boys and girls alike that makes it comparatively difficult for the teacher to get at their minds so as to guage their difficulties and estimate their progress; and, further, some boys seemed to be much disheartened when they find themselves distanced by girl competitors. Difficulties of this kind emerge, I think, at New Plymouth, at Timaru, and perhaps at Invercargill. I understand that since my last visit the Governors at New Plymouth have resolved to have bo ys and girls taught separately, though how this is be well done with only three teachers I do not see. At Timaru the staff is larger, and the difficulties will be less. The schools in which the boys and girls are taught together are Whangarei, Thames, Akaroa, and Rangiora; at New Plymouth, as I have already mentioned, a change has just been made. At Auckland College and Grammar School boys and girls are under the same roof, but in different rooms, and the girls are taught by ladies, except in classes for Latin, French, mathematics and science, in which subjects they have the same teachers as the boys. At Timaru and Invercargill the most advanced girl pupils attend the same classes as the boys in classics and some other subjects."

2. The public school for primary instruction does not provide for any language other than English, nor for any mathematical instruction beyond arithmetic.

3. To the education boards which have control of the primary schools the Government grants a capitation allowance of 1*s.* 6*d.* per annum on the average attendance, to provide means of maintaining scholarships tenable in secondary schools. In December 1893, such scholarships were held by 176 boys and 116 girls. The expenditure under this head in 1893 was 7,073*l.* Some of the secondary schools give free tuition to the best of the candidates that are unsuccessful in the competition for the education board's scholarships, or to scholars chosen by the school governors. The results of the scholarship system appear to give general satisfaction.

If the question means, what arrangements are made by the secondary schools to adapt their organisation to the wants of pupils coming up from the primary schools, I can best reply by sending a copy of a report I made last month on the boys' high school at Dunedin, which shows how the organisation is affected by this consideration in one good school. (*See* extract appended hereto.)

4. The introduction of technical instruction into secondary schools has not been general here. Two or three schools have workshops in which the pupils learn to work in wood or make their own apparatus for experiments in physical science, and in one school, in a mining district, the laboratory work takes a practical shape in the form of assaying. One of the girls' high schools has cooking lessons.

8. There is no ostensible provision for the training of secondary school teachers. There is no chair of pedagogy in connexion with the university. Some teachers who have had primary school and normal school training, and a full course of university study, have become secondary school teachers after graduation.

6. None of the secondary schools are free. The current income of secondary schools last year from school fees was 19,810*l.*, and from endowments 26,351*l.* The rest of the question has been answered under Question 3.

7. I find that the registrar of the university has no statistics under this head. I believe that it is very seldom that a student enters the university directly from the primary school—certainly not in more than one case out of ten.

8. In this young colony there has been much growth since 1865. Most of the secondary schools have come into existence since that time, and there has been so little of system in the development that there has been no room for a material change of system.

9. There has not been any considerable increase recently in the number of private schools.

22nd October 1894. W. Jas. Harbens.

Extract from Report on the Boys' High School, Dunedin.

"The present organisation of the school is controlled by the relation that the high school sustains to the primary schools, and in this respect the change that has taken place between the date of my first annual visit to the school and the date of this (the sixteenth) visit is very remarkable. In the old days there was a first form in the school, and a second, and a lower third, and an upper third, Of these there is now only one in existence, the third, formerly called the upper third.

"The reason of this change is that now almost all the pupils come from the primary school, and most of them have there passed the sixth standard; many indeed have remained there a year or more after passing the sixth. The youngest boy now in the school will be 12 years old next month. Exclusive of a few sick boys, who have not been to school this term, the number of pupils is now 200, and not less than 136 have passed the sixth standard in public schools, while 22 left the public schools after passing the fifth standard, and 11 after passing the fourth. This leaves 31 boys who may be called high school boys proper, but even among these 31 there are four who have been at primary schools and have passed some standard below the fourth. These 31 boys are distributed among the forms as follows:—Third form, five; remove, five; lower fourth, three; upper fourth, six; lower fifth, two; upper fifth, seven; lower sixth, one; upper sixth, two. The extreme case of reliance on the primary school is found in the upper sixth. It is the case of a boy nearly 17 who entered in February last, to be specially prepared for a university examination. Fifteen years ago the form a boy was in depended chiefly on the progress he had made in Latin and mathematics, and the trouble was to know what to do with boys, then reckoned lop-sided, who knew nothing of these subjects, but who coming in with scholarships were too old, and too much advanced in primary school subjects, to be placed near the bottom of the school. Now a boy's place in the school, except in the highest forms, is determined by his knowledge of English (and collateral subjects) and of arithmetic. The fourth form boy is not necessarily in the fourth form in Latin, or in French. The whole school is simultaneously occupied with Latin for five hours a week, and the classes for Latin do not correspond to the forms in which the boys are placed for other purposes. Each boy goes to the Latin class for which he is fit, and a boy in leaving a lower class in which he has done well may be promoted to a class above the next to that in which he has been taught. Similarly all the French classes (including the whole school) are engaged at French at the same hour, and a boy is classified specially for French according to the progress he has made."

TASMANIA.

REPLIES received from the DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION, Hobart.

1. All the public elementary schools of Tasmania are attended by both boys and girls. The scholars are classified according to proficiency without distinction of sex, but when the classes are grouped for instruction in the schoolroom the boys are placed in the front rows of desks and the girls in the back rows. A separate yard or playground is provided for each sex, with separate access to out-offices. The system of mixed schools works satisfactorily. The Education Department controls and supervises the management as well as the teaching of the schools, and no teachers are retained in the service who are not qualified to maintain good discipline. The town schools are attended by boys up to 14 and girls up to 16 years of age; in the country schools children seldom remain after the age of 13. Both sexes are benefitted by being associated together under good discipline and general management. The attendance varies from about 20 in a small country school to 450 in a town school.

2. The State schools of Tasmania all belong to the elementary class. The secondary schools are practically private schools, a few of them being partly maintained by endowments.

3. A system of State exhibitions from elementary to secondary schools has been in operation for many years with fairly satisfactory results.

The candidates for such exhibitions belong chiefly to the middle or lower middle class, and among the successful competitors there have been poor scholars of promise.

Public examinations, similar to the Oxford and Cambridge local examinations, are held annually by the university at which exhibitions are awarded to junior, and scholarships to senior candidates, the former being tenable for three years at secondary schools of good repute, and the latter for a similar period, which is conterminous with the three years course of study for a university degree.

4. Technical education, properly so called, is not connected with general education in the secondary schools, but a few of these include some subjects of general instruction in the ordinary school course. Technical schools proper are conducted as portion of the State education system.

5. There is no provision for the training of secondary school teachers.

6. There is no free education at secondary schools, except through exhibitions awarded on the result of competitive examinations.

7. The University of Tasmania is of but recent foundation. No students have yet entered the university who have not previously passed through a secondary school.

8. There is no public secondary education in Tasmania.

9. The increase in the number of private schools since 1865 has been commensurate with the increase of population. The standard of proficiency in the principal private schools has been perceptibly raised through the indirect influence of the public examinations, but such schools are confined to the two chief towns.

Hobart,
10th August 1894.

T. Stephens, M.A., Oxon,
Director of Education.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Circular.

Heads of Information which it is desired to obtain from the United States of America.

1. What is your experience of the education of boys and girls in the same day schools, or in the same day classes?

2. What is your opinion of the working of the system, and as to the conditions most favourable to it as regards—
Age of scholars?
Size of the school?

3. How best may provision be made for the passing of the scholars from one class of school to another; and for giving aid to poor scholars of promise?

4. What has been found to be the best way of bringing technical into proper relation with general education in your secondary schools?

5. What provision exists for the training of secondary school teachers? How far is such training provided in connexion with the universities?

6. It has been said that the secondary schools of the United States turn out a large number of scholars whose circumstances would lead them to earn their living by manual labour, and particularly by agricultural labour, but who are unwilling or unfitted to do so, and have little prospect of finding congenial employment.

How far, if at all, is that statement true? If true, to what cause or causes, do you attribute it? And what remedies would you suggest?

7. What proportion of students enter your universities without having previously passed through a secondary school.

8. Has there been any material change since 1865 in the system of public Secondary Education in your State? If so, what, and on what grounds was it called for? Is the result satisfactory?

9. Has there recently been any considerable increase in the number of private schools in your State? If so, to what cause do you attribute this increase?

ILLINOIS.

REPLIES received from Mr. HENRY H. BELFIELD, Director of the Chicago Manual Training School, Chicago, Illinois, United States America.

1.—(*a.*) Six years principal in grammar school, in which boys and girls occupied seats in different classes and in different rooms.

(*b.*) Ten years principal in grammar school, in which boys and girls occupied seats in same classes and in same room.

(*c.*) Seven and one-half years principal of a high school (secondary school) in which boys and girls occupied seats in same classes and in same rooms.

In the grammar schools the pupils were from 6 to 16 years of age; in high schools from 14 to 20 years of age.

2.—(*a.*) Much depends upon the principal and teachers of the schools. If they are lacking in discipline and are non-observant, the co-education of the sexes is apt to interfere with the best progress of the pupils. This is particularly true in a secondary school. In both grammar and secondary schools the effect of co-education is apt to be injurious to the manners of the girls, but beneficial to the manners of the boys.

I am not aware of any immorality as a result of the system, as far as my own observation extended. I think the age at which pupils are found in secondary schools, say from 14 to 18, is that age at which they are most susceptible to the influence of the opposite sex, and, therefore, there is more interference from this cause with their school duties than when they are younger or older.

I have come to have very serious doubts as to the wisdom of educating the sexes together in secondary and higher schools, on account of the emulation of the sexes, which frequently results in permanent injury to the physical health of the girls.

(*b.*) I am not quite sure what is meant by the question in regard to the size of the school, whether it means the number of pupils in a school-room, or the number of pupils in a school consisting of an aggregation of school-rooms. If the former, I would say from 25 to 40 is a sufficient number for any teacher, the numbers depending somewhat upon the character and classification of the pupils, but more upon the ability of the teacher. If the latter, I would say that after years of experience with schools averaging 200 to 1,400 pupils, I much prefer large schools by reason of their closer classification.

3.—(*a.*) I think that promotion of pupils from one class, or grade, to another, should be wholly in the hands of the principal of the school. That classes should be promoted whenever their scholarship warrants it, and never at fixed intervals, for it is very rare to find classes composed of pupils so nearly equal in ability and scholarship that injury is not done by preserving the class in its integrity for more than a few months at a time. Whenever schools contain a number of classes in the same "grade," or "standard," the more ambitious pupils should be moved from class to

class as fast as the movement can be made without injury to them, or to the class to which they are promoted.

(b.) By a personal investigation of the needs of the pupils and the recommendation of the principal of the school.

4.—(a.) Since the organization of this, the first independent manual training school, between 10 and 11 years ago, several boards of education of cities in the United States have made the experiment of putting technical instruction, or as we say here, *manual training*, into the city high schools.

Such experiments have met with great success in Baltimore, Philadelphia, Toledo, Chicago, and other cities.

Technical work, which with us consists of drawing and shop work in wood and metals, is simply added to the regular high school, or secondary, work, by the addition of drawing rooms, shops, and equipment. There are two general methods in which this is done:—The first is finely illustrated in the high school in Toledo, Ohio. An annexe to the then existing high school building was erected, and admirable provision was then made in this annexe for drawing and shop work, both for boys and girls; the work for the girls being of a different nature from that designed for the boys. Drawing and shop work were made optional with the pupils, and as a result, some members of each class are in the manual training department, as well as in the regular class-room, while others are found in the regular class-room only.

The other method, which is found in Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Chicago, is the establishment of a fully equipped manual training school, in which drawing and shop work are *obligatory* upon every pupil; pupils not desiring manual training attending the regular high schools. The success of both of these methods is marked. It seems to me that for a small city, the Toledo plan is preferable; but in a large city the distinct schools are more desirable. If the Royal Commission should desire, it will afford me much pleasure to furnish a complete description of the methods pursued in both these systems of schools. As it is, I take the liberty of sending the catalogues of these schools to the Reverend Doctor Fairbairn.

5.—(a.) Many of our secondary school teachers are educated in State or private normal schools. The number is increasing of those who have been educated in our colleges, and a few of these have had from one to three years study in German universities. A few of our own universities have lately made provision for courses in Pedagogy.

6. I think it is true without doubt that a number (how large a number I am unable to say) of graduates of our secondary schools, who should find employment in the manual arts, seek to make their living by clerking, book-keeping, teaching, &c. This is, I think, the necessary result of the almost total absence in the United States of trade schools, and to the difficulty which exists in securing an opportunity to learn a trade. I believe this unfortunate condition is due, not so much to the presence of the secondary school as to the absence of the trade school. And this conviction strengthens as I see the practical workings of the manual training schools of this country.

I believe that the establishment of a system of trade schools would remedy this evil.

7. It may be stated as a general rule that no pupil enters any one of our universities, except through secondary schools, either public or private.

The number who are fitted for the universities by private tutors is extremely small.

8. I know of no material change. There has been a general advance, I think, in the excellence of the public schools, especially in the larger towns.

9. I can speak only of the city of Chicago, in which the number of private schools has increased, though apparently in not much greater ratio than the increase in the population of the city. The late establishment

of the University of Chicago, in this city, has resulted in the opening of several private schools, whose special object is to fit for the university. One reason for the existence of these schools last named is the fact that Latin and Greek are not taught in the public schools in grades lower than our secondary schools, which pupils enter at an average age of 14 or 15 years.

IOWA.

REPLIES received from Mr. JAMES SIMMONS, Professor of Philosophy and Pedagogy in Iowa College, Grinnell, Iowa.

1 and 2. The practice of educating boys and girls together in the same schools and the same classes, is practically universal in this country; and it so generally approved that it can hardly be said there is any discussion among us concerning it.

3. All our better public schools are graded, although this grading is not uniform throughout the country, but varies with the locality. Within the limits of a single school system, *e.g.*, the public schools of one city, promotion is direct from one grade to the next higher, the satisfactory completion of the work assigned to one grade entitling the pupil to admission into the next. Promotion occurs regularly once, or sometimes twice, a year.

Pupils passing from one local school system to another, are generally classified provisionally, after formal or informal examination.

The point at which there is the greatest lack of continuity and connexion is the transition from the secondary schools ("high schools" and "academies") to the colleges and universities. The difficulty here arises (*a*) from lack of uniformity in standards of admission to colleges and universities; (*b*) from lack of uniformity in courses of study of secondary schools; (*c*) from lack of development of secondary schools in some—especially the newer—portions of our country. A large number of our higher institutions of education—most of the "colleges"—are of private endowment, and do not belong to the same system with the public schools. Consequently their standards have been largely independent of the standards of the public secondary schools. Preparation for these institutions must accordingly be gained to a considerable extent either in independent private "academies" or in preparatory schools or departments directly connected with the colleges themselves, and under the same general management. In the latter case, completion of the preparatory course admits directly to the college; in the former, admission may be by certificate or by examination.

In the case of the State Universities, as distinguished from the colleges, it has been found somewhat easier to connect with the public secondary schools (the "high schools"), as these universities may be considered to form the summit of the public school system. Here also the practice varies, admission being sometimes by certificate, and sometimes by examination.

In the case of both colleges and State Universities, the question as to the best method of admission from the lower schools, is still under discussion, with a growing tendency, it would seem, in favour of admission by certificate from schools of approved standing. It is believed by those who advocate this plan, that it furnishes a more adequate test of attainment on the part of the pupil, and at the same time exercises a wholesome influence on the secondary schools themselves.

There is no general provision for the aid of poor scholars in secondary schools, although much aid of this sort is given through private and individual channels. Many of our higher institutions—colleges and universities—furnish aid in the form of scholarships and fellowships, to students of promise; but such aid is not usually available upon entrance, but only after residence of a year or more.

4. Technical training has not been attempted in the public schools of our country to any considerable extent outside the larges cities. The place of manual training in the public schools is still under discussion. Numerous privately endowed institutions are doing valuable work in this field.

5. In this State the provision for the training of teachers might be included under three heads: (1.) Teachers' institutes, schools of two or three weeks' duration held during the summer recess in various parts of the State, and under general state supervision, conducted by more or less experienced educators, and giving instruction in theory and art of teaching combined with model instruction in the branches commonly taught in the public schools. (2.) Normal schools, public and private, where more continuous and systematic instruction is given both in the common branches and in the theory and art of teaching. In connection with the normal schools there are quite commonly model schools, in which advanced students teach under the supervision of the normal teachers. In Iowa there is one State normal, and there are also a number of private normals. The work, both of the normal schools and of the teachers' institutes, has been largely for elementary school teachers: but with the development of the country the work of the normal schools has advanced, so that in their more extended course they furnish good preparation for secondary school work. In this connection should perhaps be mentioned teachers' classes conducted in some of the larger cities, under the leadership of the city superintendent of schools, by means of which the city does a good deal for the training of its own teachers. (3.) Chairs of pedagogics established in the colleges and universities of the state. The first establishment of this kind in the United States was in the Iowa State University in 1873. It has now become quite common to give theoretical instruction in the subject of pedagogics during the later years of the college or university course. And this naturally bears more directly on the secondary school work.

6. This rather indefinite charge, frequently made and as frequently denied, probably has some foundation in individual cases; but it does not seem to us to be in general true. Of course an extended education fits young people for something more than the common forms of manual labour, and they will naturally seek to do that for which they are fitted. To a large extent there has been room for the exercise of educated talent outside the lines of agricultural and other manual labour. In so far as a false tendency exists, its remedy would seem to lie, not in limiting the extent of education, but in a proper moral attitude and tone of the school—and of society—towards productive labour in all its forms.

7. Practically no students enter our colleges and universities (properly so-called) without passing through secondary schools, either public or private. With the development of our "high school" system, an increasingly large proportion of students enter the colleges and universities directly from the high schools. Ultimately it is to be hoped that with the tendency toward more uniform standards on the part of colleges and universities on the one hand, and the secondary schools on the other, as well as the gradual elevation of the standards of the secondary schools, a closer connection at this point will be possible. There is at present a good deal of effort in this direction.

8. The development of the "high school" system, for an account of which you are respectfully referred to Professor Parker's "Higher Education in Iowa," published by the United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.

9. The tendency is towards a decrease rather than an increase of private schools; and the cause of this is doubtless the growth in extent and efficiency of the public schools of the state, particularly the "high schools."

JAMES SIMMONS, junior,
Professor of Philosophy and Pedagogy
in Iowa College, Grinnell, Iowa, U.S.A.

MARYLAND.

REPLIES received from Mr. D. C. GILMAN, President of John Hopkins University, Baltimore.

1 and 2. In those parts of this country with which I am acquainted, there is great diversity of practice in respect to the instruction of boys and girls in the same day schools. I do not recall, of late years, any discussion of a noteworthy character, as to what is the best plan. Local considerations have usually determined the course that is followed. In places where the society was homogeneous, boys and girls, for many generations, have attended the same classes, and this usage is still prevalent in country places. But in large cities boys and girls are usually taught separately, both in public and private schools. Private schools (above infant schools and kindergartens) rarely, if ever, receive both girls and boys. The younger the scholars and the smaller the school, the less objection to co-education.

5. Systematic training for secondary school teachers is to some extent provided in normal schools, and to some extent in the universities, especially in the west. A noteworthy college for the training of teachers, established a few years ago in New York City by private munificence, is now affiliated with Columbia College, New York.

6. I am inclined to think that the statement is true, and that the cause is not hard to discover. What may be called the book-habit is not favourable to bodily exertion. Young men trained in secondary schools prefer to be accountants, book-keepers, and teachers, rather than mechanics, farm hands, &c. A more intelligent interest in all departments of natural science, mechanics, physics, chemistry, electricity, and even in natural history, will to some extent counterbalance the effects of literary training.

7. Very few.

9. Yes, at least in Baltimore, chiefly to fit boys and girls for collegiate study.

MASSACHUSETTS.

REPLIES received from Mr. CHARLES W. ELIOT, President of Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

1 and 2. In the free public schools of the United States, boys and girls are, as a rule, educated together up to the age of 18 or 19, the schools being invariably day schools. The exceptions to this rule are insignificant in number. The preparatory departments maintained by many colleges and universities admit, as a rule, both boys and girls, and these are generally boarding-schools. The state and city normal schools, as a rule, admit both men and women, but the women are in great majority. Many of the so-called colleges which admit young men and women are really only secondary schools for persons whose education has been belated. The custom of the country, speaking broadly, is to educate boys and girls together "in the same day schools, or in the same day classes." The method is practicable, economical, and free from serious evils or embarrassments.

In the eastern part of the United States, among well-to-do people, separate schools for boys and for girls are preferred for children over 12 or 13 years old. In this part of the country, therefore, private and endowed schools, charging tuiton-fees, are maintained for girls or for boys separately; and the same practice is well established in the large cities of the western states. These private and endowed schools are sometimes day schools and sometimes boarding schools. An illustration of the strength of this preference has lately been given in Boston, where a private day school expressly intended to keep boys and girls together up

to the age of 18, and conducted with great intelligence and generosity, has just been abandoned as hopeless after years of patient effort. The creation of several separate colleges for women in the eastern states within the past 25 years, in spite of the fact that many institutions originally intended for men have been opened to women during the same period, illustrates the same tendency of public opinion.

In my opinion, the education of boys and girls together works well up to 10 or 12 years of age. After that age there seems to me to be advantage in separating the two sexes. The size of the school is not an important consideration; for a large school may easily be divided into small classes or sections. The principal considerations seem to me to be, first, the homogeneousness of the community—the more homogeneous the community as regards race, religion, and mode of life, the better mixed schools work—and secondly, the pecuniary competency of the community to provide separate schools for older girls and older boys. Separate schools cost more, and in rural communities are almost impracticable. In most American committees the opinion prevails that girls should have as good an education as boys. The easiest and cheapest way to give effect to this opinion is to teach the girls and boys together.

3. By "the passing of scholars from one class or school to another" I understand the passing of scholars from a primary school to a higher elementary school, and from that higher elementary school to a secondary school. In the United States parents usually keep their children in the public schools so long as they can afford to dispense with the children's labor. Nevertheless not over five per cent. of the children ever reach a secondary school. The determining consideration is the pecuniary condition of the family, the public schools, secondary as well as elementary, being all free. There is no provision in the United States for giving aid to good scholars in the elementary schools who desire to resort to the secondary schools, but whose parents are not able to give them that privilege. It must be remembered that there are immense tracts of territory in the United States where there are no secondary schools. Cities and large towns ordinarily maintain them, the rural districts seldom.

4. In a considerable number of American cities, shops in which various forms of manual training can be given have been added to the public secondary school called the high school. In Boston a separate secondary school called the Mechanic Arts High School has recently been established at public expense. In Cambridge, near Boston, private munificence has provided a manual training school which is in association with the public high school; so that the pupils do part of their work in the high school, and part of it in the manual training school. All these recent developments must still be described as experimental. It is not yet clear how manual and technical and subjects are to be dealt with in the secondary schools of the United States. The private and endowed secondary schools have made very little effort in this direction. They have recently introduced laboratory methods of teaching sciences; but they have not introduced anything which can properly be called technical education.

5. The best secondary school teachers in the United States are graduates of colleges or scientific schools—that is to say, they have ordinarily received the degree of Bachelor of Arts, or Bachelor of Philosophy, or Bachelor of Science. Within a few years past several American universities have introduced instruction in pedagogy, or at least, in the history and art of teaching. The normal schools of the United States have been, thus far, schools of a grade but little, if at all, above that of the public secondary schools called high schools; so that that the great majority of their graduates are only fit to teach in the elementary schools This very year a movement has begun to raise the grade of the normal schools of Massachusetts—the intention being to require graduation at a high school for admission to a normal school.

6. The public high schools of the United States, being situated as a rule in large towns and cities, have very little to do with the children of

farmers or of agricultural labourers. They are resorted to, however, by large numbers of the children of mechanics and other persons who get their living by some form of manual labour. It seems to me to be true that the graduates of high schools, both young women and young men, endeavour in after life to earn their living in the lighter and more agreeable employments, in which brains tell for more and muscles for less. No other result could be anticipated. That is just what educated people of all sorts and conditions expect to do. An education which does not produce this effect has certainly missed one of its important objects. I have never observed that the graduates of secondary schools in the United States had more difficulty in finding congenial employment than other young people. I should suppose, on the contrary, that they would have less difficulty. The question does not seem to me to refer to any real evil. It is not the object of an education prolonged till 18 or 19 years of age to produce a coal-heaver, or a scullion, or an agricultural labourer in the English sense of that term. In the higher departments of farm labour in the United States there is, as in other countries in which agricultural machinery is much used, quite as much opportunity for the exercise of trained intelligence and skill as in a machine shop or a factory. In the western states, therefore, the children of farmers resort in considerable numbers to the universities and to the preparatory schools connected with colleges and universties.

7. I can only answer this question with reference to Harvard University, for I am not familiar with the facts of any other institution. During the past 20 years, from one-eighth to one-fifth of the young men admitted year by year to Harvard College (the department which gives the degree of Bachelor of Arts) had been prepared by private teachers and had not passed through a secondary school, or at least had not completed the course of a secondary school. All the professional departments of Harvard University maintain admission examinations; but the grade of these examinations is below the grade of the examination for admission to Harvard College, except that the Theological School accepts no students as candidates for its degree who do not already hold, on entering the school, an academic degree. After the academic year 1895–96 this same regulation will obtain in the Law School. I have no means of ascertaining what proportion of students have heretofore entered Harvard University in the professional schools without having previously passed through a secondary school. In general, it has been true throughout the United States that the schools of law and medicine have been open to any applicant no matter what his previous training might have been, and that the scientific or technological schools have been open on much easier terms than the colleges. The secondary schools have, therefore, lacked the support which they should have received from the institutions of technical and professional education. The colleges may be said, in a rough way, to have given support to secondary education; but owing to the fact that secondary schools have not existed in anything like adequate number, many colleges and universities, particularly in the western states, have felt forced to maintain preparatory departments of their own. In recent years there has been a tendency among the stronger institutions to abandon their preparatory departments.

8. There has been no single material change since 1865 in the system of public secondary education in Massachusetts, but there has been a gradual improvement in the free secondary schools, and there has been an increase in the number of schools called secondary or high. Interesting changes are the increased importance of the superintendent's or supervisor's function, the free provision of text-books, the free transportation of children to central schools from outlying districts, the increased attention to the English language, the gradual introduction of proper methods of teaching the sciences, and the progressive modification of the traditional school curriculum which admitted Latin, Greek and mathematics, and little else. All these changes have affected elementary as well as secondary schools.

9. The number of private schools, both elementary and secondary, maintained by the Roman Catholics in Massachusetts has decidedly increased; and the relative influence of private and endowed schools in Massachusetts has also increased within the last 20 years. This is partly the effect of the increased heterogeneousness of the population, both as regards race and mode of life. It is partly due also to the fact that the private and endowed schools have established a distinct superiority to the public schools; because they are freer to experiment with new methods of instruction, and to adopt methods which prove to be good; and because they spend more money per pupil. In Massachusetts it has been the private and endowed schools which have adopted most promptly the improvements in education urged upon schools by colleges and universities.

REPLIES received from Mr. JOHN TETLOW, Headmaster of the Girls' High and Latin Schools, Boston, Massachusetts.

3.—(1.) In answering this question, I will assume that the classes of school referred to belong to the same system, in other words, are under the same supervisory authority. In that case, the course of study of the higher school will be so adjusted to the course of study of the lower, that the transition from the work of the highest class [form] in the latter to that of the lowest class [form] in the former will be easy and natural. It seems to me, therefore, that promotion from school to school should be determined in the same way as promotion from class [form] to class within the same school. The test of fitness for promotion should be the teacher's judgment, as determined by his impression or (if a daily record is kept) his record of the pupil's work, supplemented by periodical (say, bi-monthly) examinations. Many years ago, when we admitted pupils from the elementary (so called "grammar") schools to the secondary (so called "high") schools by examination only, the candidates accepted were better fitted for the work to be done; but many pupils who would have profited by contact with the more advanced studies, never got a chance at them.

(2.) By making text-books as well as tuition free. Besides this, we have, in the Girls' High School, the "Seavey Fund," which has been contributed by graduates of the school, and which amounts to about $4,000. The income of this is privately given to promising students who are found, in one way or another, to be struggling with pecuniary burdens too great for them to carry unaided. The teacher who first comes in contact with the deserving case brings it to the attention of the teacher charged with the administration of the fund—who is, by the way, one of the oldest and most sympathetic and judicious teachers—and the matter is managed privately. An account of the disposition of the income—without names—is given at the annual reunion of the graduates. We give no prizes, as we think the effect of competition for prizes is both unwholesome and, in the case of girls, unduly stimulating.

4. Through *Mechanic Arts High Schools*, which devote three hours a day to book work, and three to shop work with tools. The book work gives special emphasis to drawing, mathematics, English (including history), and modern languages.

5. Within the last 10 years a sort of tacit understanding seems to have been gradually established that candidates for positions in secondary schools should have completed a three years' or four years' course in one of the higher institutions which with us are called colleges. With this understanding or expectation, there has appeared within the last five years a tendency on the part of the colleges and universities to establish courses in pedagogy for intending teachers, and to recognise these courses in the requirements for the A.B. degree; also to establish friendly relations with the authorities and teachers of neighbouring secondary

schools, to which the students who intend to become teachers may be sent for observation. Although the normal schools, by means of advanced courses, strive to attract students who are intending to qualify themselves to teach in secondary schools, they have not as yet succeeded in doing so to any great extent. Most of the graduates of the normal schools become teachers in schools of elementary grade.

6. Those who say this are, so far as I have observed, persons who think that young people born in an "inferior station" should be content to remain there. I believe that the graduates of our public high schools, as a class, constitute the strength and hope of the communities to which they belong, and therefore of the nation. On second thoughts, perhaps "strength and hope" are a little ambitious and soaring in this connection; so I will substitute for them the phrase "substantial citizens."

7. . . . . .

8. The free text-book law has been passed. The result has been that a larger percentage of the youth of the state enter the high school than formerly.

9. Catholic parochial schools have been established, owing to pressure from the Roman Catholic hierarchy, who charged that the public secular schools were "godless." This pressure seems to now largely have spent its force. I know of no other appreciable increase in the proportion of private to public schools.

JOHN TETLOW,
Head Master of the Girls' High and Latin Schools, Boston, Massachusetts.

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(3) REPLIES received from MRS. QUINCY A. SHAW, Boston.

My experience has been in a private school of boys and girls, which I established in 1880, and which is now closed, also in experimental work in connexion with the public schools. The number of pupils in the private school varied from one hundred and fifty to two hundred. The grades were from the kindergarten to the university. My object, apart from giving the best instruction hitherto found in schools, was to introduce the natural sciences, physical and manual training, music, and drawing, and to provide the opportunity for trying experiments for the better development of children which might prove useful to other schools. Also to test the most progressive methods which were constantly proposed by teachers and educators.

Answers to Questions.

1. I believe co-education to be an important factor in the development of children. It is natural, if the family relation is the type of all other relations. It increases the activity of the mind because of necessarily varying questions and answers, thereby broadening and developing it. It establishes the true relation between "man and man" (mankind) without emphasizing the lesser relations and smaller aspects of individual differences, strengthening the complete or perfect individuality.

2. During fourteen years' experience, my convictions were steadily strengthened in favour of teaching boys and girls together, notwithstanding the varying and conflicting opinions from outside, as well as active opposition and want of co-operation, therefore I believe it to be good for children of all ages, and that they should be in the same classes. The practical success of carrying out this principle depends more on the attention given to the details involved in building up of every good school than upon any one special thing.

3. The changes from grade to grade are easily made if the training of the pupils has been systematic and thorough. It is therefore important that there should be a steadily progressive plan of work from the kindergarten through the elementary and the secondary school, that the subjects chosen should be selected with reference to the true development of the faculties and activities of the child, and the teacher must be faithful to the highest standard for the child, and must be familiar with the work of all the grades. Departmental teaching, by which the special teacher has charge of the same subject or correlated subjects through several grades, does much to solve the problem.

4. There is very little technical training connected with the general education given in our secondary schools, but several special schools of the same grade as the secondary school have been established in the United States since 1880. These schools are called manual training schools, and the curriculum is similar to that of the secondary schools, with the addition of instruction given in working in wood and iron, and the mechanical and freehand drawing connected with these branches. There has been, however, great progress made by the introduction of technical or manual training into all the elementary schools. This work begins in the kindergarten with weaving, sewing, drawing, paper-folding, painting, clay modelling, &c., and is continued in the higher grades in the form of constructive card-board work, clay modelling, drawing, and painting for the sake of form and colour, as well as in connexion with botany and zoology. Also elementary and more advanced wood work, chiefly slojd; also sewing, mending, dressmaking, and cookery. The time devoted to manual training in these grades varies in the public schools from 2 to 10 hours a week, depending on the grade and the character of the school. In some of the private schools these subjects are taught in varying proportions. This part of the curriculum seems in many ways more important than any other, and is more closely connected with general education than is allowed, since drawing can be introduced into so many departments, constructive card-board work connected with geometry, and all these branches can be made the means of valuable training in English composition, besides including endless problems, experiments and discoveries, the principal point being that the teacher shall see existing relations and connexions.

5. The training of secondary school teachers is done to a limited extent in the State normal schools. In several of the universities professional training is now given, and there is a movement for more complete work in this direction. Nearly all of the men and many of the women employed in our secondary schools are college graduates, and these frequently avail themselves of the opportunity to take professional courses now open to them in the universities and scientific schools.

6. I believe there has been a tendency on the part of a few young people to consider all kinds of manual work degrading, and not a natural outcome of any school education. They have therefore felt that their school life fitted them only for those occupations involving clerical or literary work. I believe, however, if this prejudice exists, it can be counteracted if the education is a practical and complete one, not tending too much to classical, literary and mathematical subjects for all pupils, but giving due proportion to manual training and domestic science in the curriculum, and above all, emphasizing the development of character by means of the above. When the development of character is the first object of all education we shall have the true guide for a curriculum.

8. There has been no material change in public Secondary Education since 1865, but secondary schools have increased in number, and improved in methods of teaching since that time. The establishment of the manual training high school for boys is, however, an important addition to the department of secondary schools. The greatest material change in our

system of public education since 1865 has been in the elementary schools. The introduction of the natural sciences with specimens and laboratory work, fundamental changes in the teaching of geography, with the moulding of physical features, the introduction of drawing, painting, and clay modelling, as a means of expression, and to be used in connection with any branch of study, the introduction of music, manual and physical training, and domestic science, and the greater correlation of the subjects taught, and, most important of all, the establishment of the kindergarten as the foundation of all further grades, this pre-eminently takes into consideration the complete education of the child, and provides the means for the true development of character. These changes in public elementary education were called for by the evident exclusiveness of the curriculum, the omission of branches of great interest to children and important factors in their daily life (the study of the aspects and forces of nature). The results have been satisfactorily proved by the increased activity of the child's mind, and love of school and teacher.

9. There has been a decided increase in the number and improvement in the character of private schools. The cause of this seems to be largely due to the awakening of general interest in education, and the desire to raise the standard of private schools, and to enlarge the curriculum.

PAULINE A. SHAW.

MICHIGAN.

(1.) REPLIES received from Mr. JAMES B. ANGELL, President of the University of Michigan.

SIR,

IN order that you may understand the exact significance of the answers I shall give to your questions numbered 1 to 9, permit me first to make a few remarks concerning the organisation of secondary schools in this country.

Secondary education is provided by (*a*) academies or seminaries; (*b*) by private schools; (*c*) by public high schools.

Until say about 1850 it was furnished mainly by the academies and private schools. The academy or seminary (these names were used indiscriminately), was usually provided with a small endowment, was controlled by a board of trustees, and was incorporated under the law of the state. While it received day scholars from the neighbourhood, it depended for its patronage chiefly on pupils from a distance, who lived in the dormitory, and were under strict supervision. Some of these institutions received boys alone, some girls alone, some received both. In case both sexes were received, they met in the class-rooms, but were rarely allowed to meet elsewhere, except in the presence of some of the teachers.

Private schools intended to prepare boys for business life or for college frequently receive from 50 to 100 pupils, and profess to give a somewhat closer personal attention to their individual needs than the academies.

The high schools are supported in the main by taxation of the inhabitants of a town or city, or of some district of the town or city, though in in some States aid is furnished from the State treasuries. They generally offer tuition free of charge to students residing in the district, or town or city which supports the school, though a small fee is in some case, charged for instruction in other languages other than English, and a tuition fee is ordinarily exacted of pupils not residing in the district, which is taxed for the support of the school. Some schools do not admit non-resident students at all.

In the Eastern and Middle States, until a comparatively recent period, secondary education (especially the instruction preparatory for colleges), was chiefly given in the academies. In many of the Western States, high schools were so early and so well organised that the academies are not so numerous as in the East. The high schools in the East have now so increased in number that many of the old academies have died or are moribund, though a considerable number still flourish there. But in this State, Michigan, there are hardly any. However, in the West, certain colleges maintain academic or preparatory departments, which fill the place of academies. But some of these colleges are now dropping the preparatory departments.

Answers to Questions.

1. The education of boys and girls in the same day schools and in the same classes is general in the high schools, though there are some exceptions, notably in Boston. In many academies they are also taught together.

2. The system is entirely successful, beginning with the primary school, and continuing through the whole secondary course. It is, of course, more economical than a system which separates the sexes, and we find no practical objection to it; on the contrary, we think it better both for the boys and the girls.

3. (*a*) I think that promotions from one school to another are best determined by the success of the pupil in his regular daily work, rather than by special examinations. (*b*) As our public school system is practically free, we hardly have occasion to consider the question of aiding poor scholars through the high schools. Some academies have endowments or scholarships for the aid of students intending to study for the ministry. In my judgment, if such aid is furnished, it should not be limited to that class, but should be offered to needy boys of promising scholarships, whatever is their intended vocation.

4. That problem is not yet so satisfactorily solved in this country that there is a consensus of opinion on what is the best course to pursue. I think that the opinion is gaining ground that shop-work, teaching boys the use of tools in working wood and iron, may judiciously be introduced in connection with secondary school studies. Several of our best high schools have their shop-work.

5. Some normal schools undertake to prepare secondary school teachers. I fear that the attempt in many cases leaves much to be desired, since the principal work of the normal schools in this country is the preparation of teachers for work in the lower grades. In 1876, the University of Michigan established a Chair of the Science and the Art of Teaching, with the special aim of preparing students for teaching in the secondary schools. Since then a considerable number of American universities have established such chairs. In this way these institutions have rendered valuable service to secondary education. It still remains true, however, that we are far behind Germany in making sure that the teachers in the secondary schools are specially trained for their work.

6. It is impossible to answer this question with exactness. It is doubtless true that there is an increasing tendency of American youth to shun manual labour, and especially agricultural labour, and to seek positions as clerks, or directors of labour, or some pursuit where mere physical toil is not too severe. Many influences have contributed to this result. Conspicuous among them is the large immigration of a class of Europeans, fitted only for physical toil. The Irish, the Germans, the Swedes, largely of the peasant class, have come in immense numbers, and while the men have become our common labourers, the women have taken the burden of domestic service. That has left a large proportion of the

American born children free to enter on other pursuits. A fair education has, of course, prepared them and stimulated them to become the directors of labour, or to devote themselves to callings in which their education is useful. We do not regret this. Those who are incompetent to maintain themselves in the positions to which they aspire will find their proper level. The increase of intelligence in a nation may make some readjustments in employments necessary. But we cannot regard it as on that account undesirable.

7. I cannot furnish a statistical answer to this question. It is safe to say that scarcely any enter the course in Arts without having received instruction in some kind of a secondary school. A larger number, but still a small percentage of those who have not had such instruction, enter the departments of law and medicine in our universities. The number who are prepared for colleges and universities by private tutors is very small. It is larger in the East than in the West.

9. There has recently been very little increase in the number of private schools in this State. That increase is wholly in the larger cities. In those places some parents prefer to have their children, especially their daughters, in select schools, where their associates are not drawn from so promiscuous a company as is found in the public schools. Children of dull minds or of slow development are often sent to private schools because they can there receive more personal attention. But in this State nearly all the children receive their secondary education in the higher schools. This is true to a greater extent in all the West than in the East.

JAMES B. ANGELL,
President of the University of Michigan.

Ann Arbor, Michigan,
July 11, 1894.

REPLIES received from B. A. HINSDALE, Ph.D., LL.D., Professor of the Science and the Art of Teaching in the University of Michigan.

Before answering the questions specifically, I wish to say that answers returned by various persons will be affected by a number of considerations, as, for example, the State or part of the Union to which the one making answers belongs. In the Eastern States private schools and endowed schools are much more prominent than in the Western States. There are four co-educational colleges in New England. The public high school and the whole system of State education has taken a stronger hold in the West than in the East. Co-education colleges abound in the West, and society is less conventional. Again, the personal equation can hardly be excluded. The personal views and experiences of the one making answers, and the views and usages of the social circle in which he moves, can hardly fail to affect either the substance or the colour of his answers, or both. These observations premised, I make answer to the several questions as follows:—

1. I have been more or less closely connected with education and schools from the time that I was old enough to go to school until now. For more than 30 years I have been actively engaged in the work of teaching or of supervision, save for four years. I have had observation of the education of boys and girls in the same day schools and in the same day school classes, in all grades of the public school, in college preparatory schools, and in colleges.

2. I am in favour of co-education as the norm or type in the field of secondary schools. I am not opposed, however, to schools for boys alone or for girls alone for those who wish to use them. In our American

States, however, it will be found impossible, in the long run, to maintain public schools of any grade to which boys and girls shall not be admitted indifferently. Schools for boys alone and schools for girls alone must be provided for in some other way. I need not take space to state the causes or conditions that would make a boys' school better for a boy and a girls' school better for a girl, except to say that much will depend upon the character and temperament of the pupil, the views of the parents, and social opinion and usage. In our American schools I am sure that the co-education school must be the norm, from the lowest grade to the upper classes of the university. Considerable numbers of persons will avail themselves of one-sex schools. This number is, perhaps, likely to increase as population increases in density and in variety, and as wealth multiplies. I have failed to see that the age of scholars or the size of the school is a factor to be taken into the account.

3. I know of no better way to give aid to poor scholars than for persons of means, having a disposition to give such aid, to seek out poor scholars of promise, and assist them privately and unobtrusively. When it comes to the organisation of aid, I know of no better provision than scholarships and similar funds provided by private individuals. For the State to provide such funds is a somewhat doubtful matter. In some of our State universities, however, scholarships covering tuition are thrown open to competition among youth of proper age, character, &c. living within certain districts. Mention may be made of Cornell University, where this system appears to work well. It is unknown in connection with this university. Something of the kind, however, is found in many of the colleges founded to promote agriculture and the mechanic arts pursuant to an Act of Congress passed in 1862.

5. It can hardly be said that exclusive provisions exist in the United States for the training of secondary teachers, as such. The normal schools (what would be training colleges in England) furnish the secondary schools with a certain number of teachers, but these teachers do not, as a rule, receive the attention that is desirable to prepare them professionally for their specific work. In most of the normal schools students looking forward to secondary teaching are not differentiated professionally from those looking forward to elementary teaching. There is a growing opinion, however, that such differentiation is desirable, and in the state of New York, one of the State normal schools, as I understand, has been recently set apart for the training of secondary teachers. I am unable to state what the result has been to date, and would respectfully refer you to the educational authorities at Albany. Chairs of pedagogics have been established in a number of colleges and universities. In some of these institutions instruction in the science and the art of teaching is combined with instruction in philosophy, say psychology and logic. The oldest of these chairs is the one that I now occupy, founded in 1879. The instruction looks especially, but not exclusively, to preparing teachers for secondary work. The same may, no doubt, be said of similar chairs founded in other universities.

6. I am not altogether clear as to the meaning to be attached to "circumstances" in this question. If the term includes natural ability, force of character, pecuniary circumstances, social standing, and promise of success in some field of labour higher than that of manual labour, I should say that the statement contains a certain amount of truth; how much truth it contains is a matter of judgment and cannot be explained in quantitative terms. There is no question in the whole list to which the introductory remarks made above apply more pertinently than to this one. I do not doubt, however, that the public high schools do divert a considerable number of pupils from farm, shop, and mine who would be better off, in the long run, if, when they have acquired an elementary education, they continued in some line of manual labour. It is also true that the public high schools open up to many youth useful and honourable careers above the level of manual labour which, without these schools, they could not attain. The cause or causes are such as are naturally

incident to a democratic society, where tradition and convention press upon men lightly. Mention may be made of the striving so characteristic of an energetic population. What may be called "the gospel of endeavour" is fervently preached in the United States, and it has a multitude of disciples. It leads, as a matter of course, to both good and bad results. No doubt the good decidedly preponderates, on the whole. The question of remedies is a difficult one. I know of no better remedy than to inform the public mind, to discuss this and all related questions, to bring the weight of enlightened opinion, public and private, to bear upon both youth and parents. Certainly inertia or torpor is no remedy. Do what we will, the round man sometimes gets into the square hole. Some persons think that American society is now threatened with serious evils at this point. Much is said about the farm boys flocking to towns in pursuit of clerkships and similar employments. Undoubtedly our urban population is increasing much more rapidly than our rural population; but the same is true in England, France, and Germany; in fact, all over the Western world. The causes that bring about this state of things, at least the great causes, must therefore be general. I shall not discuss these, except to say that the public high school, in the United States, no doubt contributes its influence to the grand result. I admit the existence of evils in connection with our secondary education, but see no way to correct them but fuller and better education.

7. I am wholly unable to answer the question in quantitative terms. Much would depend upon the location of the university, as respects the State in which it is found. No doubt the proportion of students who have not passed regularly through a secondary school is much larger west of the Alleghany mountains than it is on the Atlantic slope. Society in the Mississippi valley and in the Great West is less crystallised, less conventional. In former times many of the students preparing for the New England colleges received their preparation, above the elementary school, in the studies of the pastors of the churches. This is no longer the case, at least in appreciable numbers. The academy and public high school now do most of the work. At this university a considerable number of students attend who have taken fragmentary or partial secondary courses, which they have often supplemented by private study. Still there can be no doubt that by far the larger number of our students have been for a longer or shorter period of time, and most of them for the whole course, in secondary schools. The common secondary course is four years. A very large number have come up through the grades, or the "standard," as you say in England, of the public elementary school, and then through the classes of the public high school.

8. There has been no material change, such as the question describes, since 1865. The public school system of Michigan was well established in that year, and all that I need to say is that its history has been one of rapid and successful development.

9. I do not think there has been a large increase in the number of private schools in this State. No doubt there has been an increase. This increase I attribute to increasing social complexity, to the increasing heterogeneity of the population, and to the rapid increase of wealth. As the population of the State increases in size and in wealth, private schools will increase in number and in aggregate attendance, but by no possibility, so far as I can see, can they come to be formidable competitors of the public schools, either elementary schools or high schools.

Addendum.—Reviewing what I have written above, I fear it may prove misleading on a single point. I do not mean that boys and girls have always been found together, or that they are now always found together, in the same State schools. The contrary is the fact. At the same time, the unmistakable tendency is to throw the sexes together in elementary schools, in public high schools, and in State universities. In this respect the West has moved more rapidly than the East or than the South. Separate high schools for boys and girls will be found in Boston, but not

in Chicago. Girls have not been admitted, at least as a rule, to the State universities of the South.

B. A. HINSDALE.

Ann Arbor, Michigan,
June 11, 1894.

NEW YORK.

(1.) REPLIES received from Mr. NICHOLAS BUTLER, Dean of the University Faculty of Philosophy, Columbia College, New York.

1. The education of boys and girls in the same day schools and in the same day classes is customary throughout large parts of the United States. It is almost universal in the elementary schools, except in the largest cities, and no complaint or criticism of its working than can in any way be considered serious has ever come to my notice. In schools of secondary grade the custom differs. In New York City there are no public secondary schools, properly so-called, but the secondary classes in the so-called city colleges are organised separately for boys and girls. In Boston separate public high schools for boys and girls exist. In the smaller cities, however, boys and girls are educated together through the secondary school period, with arousing any attention or comment.

2. My opinion is that the system of co-education works well in schools of any size, but that the conditions for its success are most favourable when the pupils are not over 14 years of age.

3. In my judgment the passing of pupils from one class of school to another should be made as simple and easy an operation as possible. It should be the aim to invite students to go forward to a higher grade or class of school, and not to make it difficult for them to do so. The tendency in this country is to obliterate the sharp line of division now existing between elementary and secondary schools, and not a few secondary studies, such as algebra, plane geometry, the elements of Latin, and a modern European language, are gradually being introduced into the upper grades of many elementary schools. As a result the two classes of schools are really becoming one, and nothing more formal than the satisfactory performance of the work of one grade is required before the pupil is promoted to the next. I would retain this characteristic of our system even where the elementary and secondary schools are more sharply divided.

The problem of giving aid to poor pupils of promise is not an easy one, for too often the aid designed for the pupil proves to be given to the parent only. A system of competitive scholarships seems the most equitable method of solving the difficulty. Your attention is directed to the Pulitzer competitive scholarships, open to boys in the grammar schools of New York City.

4. Technical or industrial subjects of study have gained a foot-hold in the secondary schools of the United States within the past 10 years. Many secondary schools teach drawing, and in a few cases sewing and cookery are taught to girls. The traditional secondary school curriculum has, however, yielded but little time to these subjects, and the more usual plan has been to found what are called manual training high schools, where drawing, wood and iron-working, mathematics, and the elements of physics and chemistry are taught, in connection with English, a modern language, and sometimes Latin. The most successful of these schools are the St. Louis Manual Training School, the Chicago Manual Training School, the Boston Manual Training High School, the Brooklyn Manual Training High School, and the Philadelphia Manual Training Schools. Circulars of each of these institutions are enclosed with this, and an examination of their several courses of study will disclose how the time allotment is made between the several subjects. Schools of

this type are increasingly popular, and will doubtless in time educate a large portion of the secondary pupils of the country.

5. Until within a year or two no provision whatever has existed in the United States for the training of secondary school teachers. The public normal schools have centred their attention upon the needs of teachers in the elementary schools, and the universities have done little or nothing to supplement the training of their students in scholarships by a professional course in the history, theory, and art of teaching. This, however, has now been remedied, and in the largest universities ample and increasing provision is made for students who desire to fit themselves to become teachers or managers of secondary or normal schools. Perhaps the opportunity offered by Columbia College in connection with the Teachers' College (circulars of both institutions are sent herewith) is the widest in this country. Harvard University, Cornell University, Stanford University, and the State Universities of Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Illinois, Colorado and California, are also equipped to train secondary school teachers. As yet these opportunities are availed of but slightly, though there is every indication that the number of pupils who study education in these universities will increase rapidly.

6. I know of no evidence whatever to prove that the secondary schools of the United States graduate a large number of pupils whose circumstances would lead them to earn their living by manual labour, but who are unwilling or unfitted to do so. The graduates of secondary schools either go forward to a college and university education, or turn directly to earning a livelihood. In the latter case they are successful, so far as my knowledge and observation extend, in securing employment and prove themselves efficient in the callings they select.

7. Practically no students enter our universities or colleges without having passed through a secondary school. The proportion prepared by private tutors or by private study is so small as to be a negligible quantity.

8. There is no material change since 1865 in the system of public secondary education in New York or in New Jersey. State supervision becomes more minute and more stimulating each year, and the schools seem to increase in number and popularity in both urban and rural communities. In New York State, in particular, the system of public secondary education seems to be an almost ideal one.

9. There is a steady increase in the number of private schools in the cities. This is due to two facts. First, the present activity of the Roman Catholic clergy in building up their parochial schools. The attendance on these schools in New York City and Brooklyn has recently increased very largely. The second cause is found in the fact that in the large cities the well-to-do classes do not patronize the public schools, but send their children to privately managed establishments. This, however, is only true in the East and in the largest cities of the West, such as Chicago.

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER,
Dean of this University Faculty
of Philosophy, Columbia College,
in the City of New York.

October 6, 1894.

(2.) REPLIES received from Mr. F. D. BOYNTON, Principal of Ithaca High School, Ithaca, New York.

1. Very satisfactory indeed.

2. (*a*) The system works well with all ages; perfectly up to the age of 12 or 14 years when love affairs interfere to some extent.

(*b*) If by "size of school" is meant the number in a room, my answer would be 30 to 40. The word "school" in this State (New York), is used

to mean a single room with one teacher, which may be all there is to the "school"; and it is also used to mean a large building with a score or more of teachers (of both sexes), and hundreds of pupils of both sexes. Even in this last case the system works satisfactorily.

3. (*a.*) I would put the "passing of scholars" on a three-fold basis, viz., the pupil's daily record in the class-room; the judgment of the teacher in charge; and a final, written examination, the questions to be prepared by some person other than the teacher in charge. All of these should enter as factors in determining the advancement of pupils.

(*b*) By small classes. By the slow pupils and the teacher remaining after "school hours" when the teacher can give the pupil personal attention. So little of this work is called for in actual experience that it cannot be urged as any great objection to the system.

5. (*a*) Normal schools, teachers' training classes, and pedagogical courses in some of our universities have been established. In all of these instruction in the methods of teaching is given by teachers of more or less experience.

(*b*) Not to any great extent.

6. There are a few cases where a little learning turns a pupil's head; but these cases are so rare, in comparison to the numbers attending our public schools, that it can be said they do not exist.

9. No. Outside of the large cities they cannot live in competition with the free public schools.

Yours, &c.

May 31, 1894. F. D. Boynton,
(Principal).

NEW YORK CITY.

(3.) Replies received from Mr. Amos M. Kilsegg, Editor of "School Journal," New York City, U.S.A.

The Schools in the United States have three divisions, or are of three kinds, (1) primary, and (2) secondary or high schools; this last is the common term. The upper primary classes are termed *grammar* classes. The grammar schools in America correspond to the upper classes in the elementary schools in England, but cover a year more of instruction.

1. My experience in the education of boys and girls together in the same classes is that it is preferable. In New York City, Boston, and some other cities the boys and girls are together in the primary schools and separate in the grammar and high schools. In the vast majority of schools they are together in all these three classes of schools.

2. I understand Question 2 refers to "the system" generally, and has no reference to Question 1, and so reply:—

The American system produces its best results in the primary school.

It is becoming more and more a fixed sentiment that primary classes should not be large, the highest figures are 60 to a teacher, but this is deemed too many. In the grammar school (pupils from 11 to 15) 40 is deemed sufficient.

3. There are two ways relied upon for advancing pupils, (1) by examination, (2) by the opinion of the teacher based on records kept during the term. There was a sole reliance on examinations until within a year or two. It may be stated that in the lower classes the opinion of the teacher is of great weight.

No aid is given to poor scholars of promise; education is free, and the public stops its aid there.

4. The movement respecting technical education has resulted in making it a subject to be pursued along with literary and scientific education. The aim is to give what is termed manual training with us to every pupil in the primary and grammar schools. The places for giving manual training in the secondary schools vary, and are not as well settled as in the lower schools.

5. No training schools for teachers for our high schools as such exist. The graduates of the normal schools are sought for by the high schools: the colleges furnish many teachers also, but no training is given in the colleges or universities specificially for the high schools.

6. The statement referred to is only true in a very limited way. Ten years ago the high school made its main object to fit its pupils for college; since then the curriculum has been changed; there are now usually *five* courses in the high school, (1) literary (fitting for college): (2) scientific; (3) commercial; (4) English (a general mixture) and recently; (5) manual training.

The cause was the narrow courses, the remedy was the broadening of the course referred to above.

I may add here that the high school is very popular: every small city has one as soon as it has enough pupils to form a high school class.

7. I cannot reply definitely to this question.

Besides our high schools (which are free) there are numerous schools (private) which fit for colleges, these go by the name of "academies," and are usually long established. I should say, speaking roughly, that over three-fourths of the pupils entering college go from these private academies. They are looked upon as "fitting," or college preparatory schools.

9. The private schools are on the decrease. These are private schools, because men and women of great skill conduct them. They are patronised because, as a usual thing, (1) the classes are smaller; (2) the teacher is personally known; (3) there may be specific objects (as fitting for college) in view.

NEW YORK.

(4.) REPLIES received from Miss LUCY M. SALMON, Professor of History, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York.

1. During four years in a preparatory school (Falley Seminary, Fulton, New York, and the Ann Arbor, Michigan, High School), and five years in college (University of Michigan), I studied with boys and young men, I then taught boys and girls together in the McGregor, Iowa, High School for five years, and young men and young women in the Indiana State Normal School for three years; the past six years I have taught young women alone. As a student and as a teacher my judgment would be unqualifiedly in favour of the education of boys and girls in the same classes. Any other education seems to me abnormal, and lacking in certain vital elements found in a system of co-education.

3. Personally I am opposed very strongly to free text-books and to any *system* of giving aid to poor scholars of promise. I have seen much aid given to such scholars from general funds provided for the purpose, and almost without exception it has been subversive of manliness and womanliness on the part of the recipient. No feeling of responsibility is incurred, and it almost invariably gives rise to the spirit that says, "The world owes me a living." Such gifts are seldom considered as loans to be returned to the source from which they were received, nor are they regarded as favours to be passed on in time to others needing them. Corporations have no souls, and general aid funds have no claims; if a poor scholar of promise is found, the case should be presented to a person of wealth who will contribute the amount necessary. This gives a personal

interest to the giver and a feeling of responsibility to the one receiving. Character is weakened, and the good effects of education neutralised by aid received from general funds. This, of course, does not apply to the receiving of tuition in the public schools, for here rich and poor receive alike.

5. In New York State there are 11 State normal schools supported by annual appropriations from the State legislature. In addition, some cities provide training schools in connection with the public high school. These city training schools are intended to train graduates of the high school to teach in the public schools of grades below the high school. In New York City an anomalous institution is found called the "Normal College," but it is neither a normal school nor a college, being practically the girls' high school of the city. New York City also has a "teachers' college," supported by private endowment, and doing most admirable work along the best pedagogical lines. Cornell University and Columbia College are the only colleges in the State, so far as I know, giving instruction in educational science. The work in these two institutions differs from that in the schools I have previously mentioned in that it considers only the history and theory of education; it does not include the actual practice of teaching as is the case in a normal school proper.

6. In the agricultural districts, properly speaking, the schools are ungraded, and the education received is very elementary. This cannot in any way unfit pupils for agricultural pursuits; but frequently boys and girls living on farms near a town or city attend the village or city high school. I believe that in many cases such pupils, as also the children of parents in humble circumstances in villages and cities, do acquire a distaste for manual and agricultural labour. The reasons for it seem to me to be these: a very large number of teachers do not themselves distinguish between *education* and *information*, it follows that their pupils also fail to discriminate between the two. They do not look on Latin, Greek, and mathematics as subjects to be converted into an intellectual force to be applied to any calling in life, but as seeds that, when planted, must perforce produce in turn Latin, Greek, and mathematics. Hence the feeling so strong in the minds of many, especially girls, that they must become teachers after graduation. Much of this feeling will die out when our teachers are themselves better educated. Another influence at work is the opposition of trades unions to the old system of apprenticeship, and to the new system of technical schools. This grows largely out of a belief in the virtue of a high protective tariff, and I do not think will be wholly overcome until a better relation arises between employers and employees. A third influence is our corrupt political system, with its many hundred thousand appointive offices at the disposal of national and State politicians. For these offices no qualification except "influence" is necessary, and the salaries attached promise an easier way of gaining a livelihood than do pursuits involving manual labour. The remedy for this is in the establishment of a civil service, on the same basis as our military and naval service. A fourth reason is found in the fact that such large numbers of persons have suddenly and easily acquired great wealth. This leads them to look down socially on those of less wealth and those in manual pursuits, and to feel that they rise in the social scale in the same proportion that they make others sensible of personal inferiority. The tendency is to make others desire also sudden or rapid increase of wealth, and to look with contempt on the slower, more normal, methods of acquisition. The remedy for this will come when the fever of speculation has abated, and the public learns that the true source of wealth is both directly and indirectly manual labour. I do not believe that any considerable number of persons who have been truly *educated* have ever acquired in this country a permanent distaste for manual work.

7. It is a very rare thing for a person to enter a college or university without having passed through a secondary school, either public or private.

9. No statistics have been collected on this subject. My general impression is that there has been a slight increase in the number of private schools in large cities. This is, it seems to me, due to the fact that in New York City the public schools are poor, and totally inadequate as regards buildings (seating capacity and sanitary equipment), teachers, and teaching appliances, is the demands made on them. In some of the interior cities of the State, as Syracuse, the high school has only a three year's course, while four years are necessary to prepare for most colleges. Outside of New York City, however, I should say that, as a rule, the public schools stand in much higher favour than do the private schools, being regarded as much more thoroughly equipped in respect to buildings, teachers, and teaching appliances.

LUCY M. SALMON.

PENNSYLVANIA.

REPLIES received from Miss THOMAS, Dean of Bryn Mawr College, Philadelphia.

1. In many of the middle and southern states the education of boys and girls is conducted separately in most of the public schools, including primary, grammar, and high school. In Philadelphia and Baltimore, for example, the two cities with which I am personally acquainted, boys and girls are educated separately. The result of this is, that wretched as are the schools for boys, the schools for girls are of a yet lower grade. For example, in Philadelphia, it is impossible for a girl to be prepared for college in the public schools. In the Philadelphia Normal School, which has been for years the crowning point of the public school education for girls, and is crowded with students, containing from 1,600 to 2,000, it is impossible for a girl to study Latin, or French or German. Within the past year a high school for girls has been established with immense effort on the part of those interested in woman's education. This is supposed to offer a course preparatory for college; Bryn Mawr College which is in the suburbs of Philadelphia, has offered two free scholarships a year to graduates of this high school who have obtained their preparation for college entirely in the high school, but at present, there is no prospect of the high school giving a course that will fit the pupils for the examinations for matriculation. In the country districts of Pennsylvania, and in all the public schools of New York State outside of New York City itself, girls and boys are educated together. In these mixed schools the education given to girls is equal to that given to boys. My opportunity for judging has been comparatively good, as girls from almost all sections of the United States attempt the examinations for matriculation at Bryn Mawr College. My experience proves that wherever the secondary education of boys and girls is separated, the education of the girls sinks to a much lower level. The reason for this seems to me to be that our public school system is largely in the hands of politicians, and that the proportion of women on our educational boards is very small, even in States whore the law permits women to serve. Therefore, illiberal views in regard to the education of girls are allowed free scope in schools intended primarily for girls.

It is the universal practice in the Eastern States in America to separate boys from girls in the private schools and the endowed schools. The private schools for girls are in a lamentable condition. Ten years ago, in the city of Baltimore, containing nearly 400,000 inhabitants, it was impossible, either in a private, or in a public school, for a girl to obtain enough instruction in Latin and Greek to enter college. The same was the case in Philadelphia. A great change has

come about in the past ten years, but this change affects chiefly the girls who come to college. The course of fashionable accomplishments remains the same for girls who do not go to college.

The condition of these private schools is extremely important, because in our large eastern cities no boy or girl whose parents can afford to send him or her to a private school, is sent to a public school.

3. I believe that the only fair, and the best provision to be made for the passing of scholars from one class to another is by examination. Competitive examination seems to me also the only fair way of aiding poor scholars of promise.

4. I have been much interested in the subject of technical education and its relation to the secondary schools. It does not seem to me that whatever may be said to the contrary by those personally interested, we have yet found in America any satisfactory method of combining technical and general education. From what I have seen of it I think it a great waste of time. Intellectual training is sacrificed to it, and little, if anything, learned that is of advantage to the pupil in after life. I am not referring now to technical schools such as the Drexel Institute of Philadelphia, or the Prat Institute of Brooklyn, nor to schools where the technical education is the chief aim and general education the secondary.

5. Normal schools are the only provision made for the training of secondary school teachers. It is exceedingly difficult for any teacher to obtain a position in a secondary school, unless he or she has been through the normal school of that state. As the normal schools are in a very unsatisfactory condition, and like all our other public schools in the hands of politicians, this is a most unfortunate provision. Normal school training is not provided in connection with the universities, and the so-called departments of Pedagogy, about which so much has been said recently, do not, it seems to me, in any way meet the conditions for such training. The jealousy that exists between the normal schools and the universities would make it difficult for graduates of teachers' training schools connected with the universities to obtain positions in the secondary schools.

VI. I have never had an opportunity of seeing any schclars, either men or women, who have been unfitted for making a living by manual labour by the secondary schools of the United States. My experience has been that far too little intellectual training is given in these schools.

VII. At Bryn Mawr College very few of the students come to us from the secondary schools, that is, from the secondary public schools. This is because the well-to-do classes do not send their children to them. On the other hand, almost all of our students come to us from private schools. The system of tutors and governesses so widely spread in England is almost unknown in the United States.

VIII. It is scarcely possible to conceive a more unsatisfactory condition of public secondary education than, to my mind, exists in Pennsylvania and Maryland, the two states with which I am best acquainted. The divorce between secondary education and college education is complete. A very small proportion of the secondary teachers in these states have had a college education. The result can be imagined. After four years' residence in Germany, where there is the closest connection between the university and secondary education, I was aghast when I returned to see the grade of teachers employed in American secondary schools. I refer now to the Middle States.

9. There is an immense number of private schools in Pennsylvania. They are increasing every day. The reason is the totally unsatisfactory nature of public education.

I have confined my answers to women's education as I am best acquainted with the defects in the secondary education of girls.

Believe me, &c.

M. Carey Thomas.

NOTES on the AMERICAN SCHOOL SYSTEM by ALICE ZIMMERN, Gilchrist Travelling Scholar.

In the United States, as in England, great variety prevails in the system of Secondary Education. There is, however, a good deal of agreement in the systems of elementary education, in particular as regards these two points.

1. Free primary and intermediate education are provided for all who care to avail themselves of it, *i.e.*, provided they attend the school of the district in which they live. In some cases, admission is refused to those who live elsewhere, in others it is granted in return for a fee: 15 dollars a year (3*l.*) is generally the maximum.

2. Schools are divided into primary and grammar grades, the former for children from about 7 to 10 years of age, the latter from 11 to 14. The grades correspond to our standards, some states arrange for eight grades, others for 16 (*i.e.*, two for each year).

Above these grades there is little uniformity of plans, nor is it by any means a matter of general agreement that the State is bound to provide for secondary education at all. Here there is great difference between the Eastern, Southern, and Western States.

1. In the *East*, there is the greatest variety of system, and, except in the case of the University of New York, the schools are not brought into any organic connection with the universities. The varying entrance examinations of colleges cause great difficulties in the schools curriculum, and the expression "Our Secondary Education is chaos," may be heard quite as often in the Eastern States as on our own side of the Atlantic.

(*a.*) Some towns, *e.g.*, New York, have a normal school to which girls may proceed from the grammar schools. Here they receive a combination of secondary instruction and professional training, and the object is chiefly to educate teachers. This plan is not approved by the best educationalists, but in the two cities in which it chiefly prevails, New York and Philadelphia, the schools are said to have "got into politics." This is fatal to advance, hence in these two cities all the really good work is done by private effort.

(*b.*) Some States, *e.g.*, Massachusetts, afford a liberal supply of high schools, at the best of which it is possible to prepare for admission to college, In Boston itself, the schools for boys and girls are distinct, but in the rest of Massachusetts they are mixed. Washington too, has an excellent system of high schools.

(*c.*) A good deal of the Secondary Education is in the hands of private schools. In towns such as New York, where the public school education is inadequate, they do the most important part of the secondary work. Some private schools are known as "fitting schools," and direct their whole course to preparing for college. Such is the excellent Bryn Mawr Girls' School at Baltimore, which girls may enter at the age of ten. It is not very easy for the public schools, with the large and varied demands on their time, to prepare for any college with a high entrance standard, *e.g.*, Harvard, hence great part of this work falls on private schools. Thus, of the students who entered Harvard in 1890, seventy-four per cent. came from private or endowed schools, while of undergraduates in residence at Bryn Mawr College (for Women) in 1893, 81 per cent. came from private schools. In the former case, it is probable that many of the under-graduates had received preliminary education in a public school, and special preparation for college at a private academy. Bryn Mawr draws many of its students from Pennsylvania and Maryland, and the public schools in these States are not good enough to prepare for college.

2. In the *South* all Secondary Education worthy the name is in the private schools.

3. In the *West* there is a very completely organised system of primary grammar, and high schools, leading in most cases to a State university, which undertakes the inspection of the schools leading up to it. Here the universities grant a variety of degrees, which are approached by different entrance examinations, and therefore only those that are proceeding to Arts courses need to study classics at school.

It is important to notice that among private schools would be included in America, proprietary schools, schools of the type of our Girls Public Day Schools Company's schools, as well as those belonging to private individuals, many of which take a very important position.

The *technical* distinction is this:—

(*a.*) Public schools are supported by the State, and are under State supervision.

(*b.*) Private schools are not supported by the State, and are under no supervision.

The difference in the *arrangement* of the schools is great. In the primary and grammar schools, the teaching is confined to elementary subjects. Arithmetic, geography, United States history, very elementary physiology, nature study (meant to prepare the way for science) drawing, and sometimes needlework and singing. This leaves Latin, modern languages, science, and mathematics to be begun in the high school. Hence the amount of work required in the high school is very great, and some subjects that would be better begun by young children are postponed till then.

In private schools the Latin and modern languages are begun early, as with us, and the transition to higher subjects is more gradual. This greatly facilitates the arrangement of the work.

Of American experiments in Secondary Education, the most important is the high school. From one point of view, this is the step between the grammar school and the university, but it is becoming more and more necessary to consider the needs of those who do not intend to proceed to college. Hence some very interesting experiments in subdivision. Where a town is able to maintain three separate schools, we sometimes find:—

1. A Latin high school, where both Latin and Greek are taught, and where the curriculum is such as to prepare for entrance to the Arts Department of a college, *e.g.*, at the Boston Latin Schools the subjects taught are Latin, Greek, French or German, English (including history and literature) geography, mathematics, elementary science, physical training and singing.
2. An English high school where there is Latin, but no Greek. Here there is more science and mathematics, and some drawing and book-keeping. For boys this often leads to a mercantile career, for girls it may be the completion of their education. It may also lead up to a science course in some colleges. At the Boston English high schools, the subjects are English language and literature, history, one or two languages, mathematics, botany, zoology, chemistry and physics, drawing, shorthand and book-keeping (elective) singing, and physical training.
3. A manual training high school, which attempts to combine literary with special manual instruction, by a very careful classification of studies, and omission of classics, and, as a rule, of modern languages.

In large towns these three schools may be separate, or sometimes, as in the case of the Boston Girls' Schools the Latin and English schools are housed in the same building and under the same principal, and some of the specialist teachers can thus give instruction in both.

More frequently (in particular in smaller towns) there are special *courses*, instead of special *schools*. This is the case at Newhaven (Conn.) and at the High Schools in the neighbourhood of Boston.

If this arrangement were fully carried out, the system would be:—

1. Primary school for all till the age of ten.
2. Grammar school for all till the age of fourteen (except those who enter the Latin school at twelve, which is sometimes done).
3. High schools:—
   (*a.*) Latin school.
   (*b.*) English school.
   (*c.*) Manual training high school.

The Manual Training High School is the latest experiment, and has as yet gained ground in very few places. At Boston this school is only now being erected.

The first manual training school was started at St. Louis. This is not a State school, but a department of Washington University. The fees are 75, 100, and 120 dollars (15*l.*, 20*l.*, and 24*l.*) a year.

The Chicago School is carried on by the Chicago Manual Training Association. The fees are 80, 100, and 120 dollars (16*l.*, 20*l.*, and 24*l.*)

The Philadelphia and Baltimore schools are part of the State system and free.

Those at Toledo and Cleveland are free, but supported by private endowments, not by public funds.

Boston, Newhaven, and some other towns are just about to open manual training schools as part of the city school system.

At Toledo, the school is open to boys and girls, the manual training course for both being distinct.

At Brooklyn in connection with the Pratt Institute, a manual training high school has been started for boys and girls, the manual training for both being distinct. As yet, little has been done in this direction for girls, and the proper curriculum for a girls' manual training school is still a matter of dispute. In some towns a certain amount of manual instruction is given in the primary and grammar grades, but at this early age, it aims rather at the educational value of training hand and eye than at definite technical instruction. It is also very unequally distributed; in many large towns no sewing is taught; nor is cooking nearly as general as in our English Schools. Hence the need of this instruction is more urgent than in England.

The course of training received by the girls at Toledo is the following:—

First Year.

1. Arithmetic.
2. Physical geography.
3. Grammar, spelling, and English composition.
4. Freehand and mechanical drawing.
5. Light carpentering, wood carving, and use of tools.

Second Year.

1. Algebra, arithmetic.
2. Physiology, botany.
3. Grammar, rhetoric, writing.
4. Freehand drawing and modelling, designs for wood carving.
5. Clay modelling, wood carving.
6. Introductory course in cooking, and garment cutting and making.

Third Year.

1. Geometry, revision of Arithmetic.
2. Physics.
3. English composition and history.
4. Freehand drawing.
5. Instruction in preparing and cooking food, purchasing, care of sick room, &c.

Fourth Year.

1. Plane trigonometry, mechanics.
2. Chemistry.
3. Book-keeping, ethics, rights and duties, laws of right conduct, &c.
4. Political economy, English literature, and composition.
5. Draughting, cutting, making, fitting of garments, household management, type-writing, &c.

I quote the courses for boys and girls at Brooklyn.

PRATT INSTITUTE.—HIGH SCHOOL COURSE of INSTRUCTION.

First Year.

Language	Composition, English classics.
History	Ancient.
Mathematics	Algebra, plane geometry.
Science	Physical geography, physiology, botany.
Drawing	Freehand and instrumental working drawings, freehand, perspective, and cast drawing, design, developments, and intersections.
Manual work:	
For boys	Bench work in wood, wood turning, pattern making.
For girls	Sewing, hygiene, and home nursing, wood carving.
Music	Chorus singing.
Physical culture.	

Second Year.

Language	Rhetorical analysis, English classics.
History	Mediæval and Modern.
Mathematics	Plane and solid geometry, trigonometry, surveying.
Science	Physics, with laboratory practice.
Drawing	Historic ornament, clay-modelling, sketching, and design, mechanical and architectural drawing, pen-and-ink sketching.
Manual work:	
For boys	Foundry moulding, tinsmithing, forging.
For girls	Dressmaking, wood-carving.
Music	Chorus singing.
Physical culture.	

Third Year.

Language	English literature, essays, French or German.
History	Modern.
Civics	Political economy.
Mathematics	Principles of construction.
Science	Chemistry with laboratory practice, metallurgy.
Drawing:	
For boys	Advanced freehand and mechanical drawing.
For girls	Cast drawing, pen-and-ink sketching, water-colour, and design.
Manual work:	
For boys	Machine shop, vice work, machine-tool work, construction.
For girls	Cooking, dressmaking, millinery.
Music	Chorus singing.
Physical culture.	

The complete working of such a system requires large numbers to make the differentiation possible. This is greatly facilitated in America (*a*) by

the system of co-education common in many parts of the States; (*b*) by the arrangement of American towns with their long straight streets traversed by tramcars, which facilitates locomotion and makes it easy for boys and girls from any part of a town to attend a central school; (*c*) by willingness among different classes to join together for educational purposes.

FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

Circular.

HEADS OF INFORMATION WHICH IT IS DESIRED TO OBTAIN FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

1. What proportions of the secondary schools in your country are provided by the State and by private enterprise respectively?
2. In the case of secondary schools provided or aided by the State what proportion of the total cost of education is covered by the scholars' fees? On what principle is the proportion determined?
3. How best may provision be made for the passing of scholars from—
   (*a*.) Primary to secondary schools;
   (*b*.) One class of secondary school to another;
   (*c*.) Secondary schools to the universities;

and for giving aid to poor scholars of promise.

4. What has been found to be the best way of bringing technical into proper relation with general education in your secondary schools?
5. What provision exists for the training of secondary school teachers? How far is such training provided in connection with the universities?
6. It has been said that there has been recently a tendency in some countries for a large number of scholars, whose circumstances in other respects seemed to indicate some form of manual labour as their natural destination, to quit secondary schools with a dislike or unfitness for manual labour, and with little prospect of obtaining any other kind of employment? Is that statement true as regards your country? If so, to what cause do you attribute this result, and what steps should be taken to prevent it?
1. Has there been any material change in your system of secondary education since 1865, particularly as regards the training of teachers, the relation of the State and the teacher, and the organisation of primary in relation to secondary education? If so, on what grounds has such change been effected, and how is it working?
8. Has there recently been any considerable increase in the number of private schools in your country? If so, to what cause do you attribute this increase?

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

REPLIES received through the FOREIGN OFFICE.

The kind of Secondary Education provided for the people (of the lower social grades) as distinguished from that provided for the professional and mercantile classes, is practical rather than learned in its aims, and all Austrian secondary schools have for their chief object the teaching of some branch of industrial or commercial knowledge, so as to fit their pupils to earn a living more or less in the same sphere in which they were born. The secondary school takes the place, to a great extent, of the old system of apprenticeship, which now, by law, neither begins so young nor lasts so long, owing to the facilities now afforded to learn

almost any handicraft or method of conducting business, in a school. The Austrian son of the people must attend a primary school until his completed fourteenth year, when he either enters upon the earning of a livelihood under the supervision of his parents or joins one of the numerous specialized schools (Fachschulen), where he is prepared for a more advanced knowledge of his special life's work, or, according to circumstances, he may do both together.

The idea of so educating the sons of the people that they may be able to enter the universities, and so compete with the sons of the mercantile and professional classes, is foreign to the Austrian system; and he who aims at such a career for his son must pay for it himself, and send him to the advanced schools established for the upper and middle classes. In Austria, therefore, actual "book-learning" ceases almost entirely for the lower classes with their fourteenth year, when they must quit the primary school; and the education that is provided for them thereafter has entirely a practical bearing on the subject they have chosen as likely to bring them a livelihood either as artizans, labourers, clerks, &c.

1. As the Austrian system of technical and special schools is now, since about the year 1871, when these secondary schools were reformed and multiplied, extremely far-reaching, it is difficult to give any general idea of what proportion of such schools are managed by the State, province, or commune, and which by private enterprise, but it is usually only in the schools for the well-to-do mercantile classes that private enterprise may be said to exist at all, for the State offers a free, or almost free, education in almost all such subjects to the children of the people, who will not or cannot pay for private schooling. But in the actual "commercial" schools the proportion of private to public institutions is as much as 21 to 5. Private enterprise has founded a number of schools of drawing and modelling, in the proportion of 14 to 17 State schools. But the later idea of founding special schools for skilled workmen and handworkers was first carried out by the State, and, for financial reasons, private enterprise has been unable to take it up.

2. The proportion of cost covered by fees in entirely determined by the financial position of the scholar's parents, and not by competitive examination.

In the commercial schools of the lower grade, of 8,032 scholars, there were 539 who paid no fees at all, and 604 who paid only half fees; while, in the industrial special schools, 41 per cent. of the youths attending them paid no fees.

3.—(*a*) Scholars are passed by qualifying examination (non-competitive) from primary to secondary schools;

(*b*) and reach schools of a more advanced kind by the same means;

(*c*) but the secondary schools of Austria do not aim at qualifying their scholars for the universities, but rather—in cases of exceptional ability or pecuniary suitability—for the Polytechnic high schools in the great towns.

Aid is given to scholars of promise by the advice of their teachers, and by examination without competition. Austrian bursaries are small in amount, but are increased in relative value by the accompanying absence of school fees. In the commercial schools, 465 scholars of 16 schools were given aid amounting to 2,400*l.* in all, but the average bursary in every school of this class only amounted to a little over 5*l.* per head of the recipients of such aid. In the lower kind of school, the industrial special school, about 17 per cent. of the scholars are in receipt of aid amounting also to some 4*l.* or 5*l.* annually. Aid is given either in the way of remission of school fees or of small bursaries, or both at once, in all kinds of technical, commercial, and industrial special schools, from the most advanced to the lowest kind of institution.

4. In Austria very little general education is provided in the secondary schools, in fact only so much as may be necessary for the practical acquisition of the general subject or special branch which the scholar is being taught in commerce, industry, or art.

5. The universities are almost left out of account in the training of teachers for such secondary schools, for they receive their education at State establishments founded for the purpose. There are at present 70 such training colleges for teachers, male and female, in Austria, with 10,198 students in attendance, of whom 94 per cent. are passed out as qualified general teachers; of these a certain proportion go through a course at the Polytechnics of the large towns to qualify for teaching in secondary schools.

6. In Austria comparatively few complaints are heard of the unwillingness of the children of the working classes to gain their livelihood by manual labour, for general education beyond their fourteenth year is denied to them unless their parents choose to pay for it, and, in the secondary schools little is taught but what would fit them for the special life's work that they are intended by their parents to pursue. "Book-learning" is not encouraged beyond the elements that can be acquired at a primary school.

7. The history of the rise of Austrian secondary schools, if such they may be termed, which dates really from an Ordinance of the Ministry of Commerce, followed by another from the Ministry of Education in 1871, and an Ordinance of July 30th, 1881, combining the whole system under one control, has appeared in a recently published English Bluebook, Volume Eleven of the "Foreign Reports of the Royal Commission on Labour," pp. 136–138. After many years of conflict it has been found possible to so divide the control of these educational establishments between the Ministries of Commerce and Education as to secure separate spheres of influence. Teachers in Austria continue to be trained exclusively in State training colleges, and according to the advice of the Ministry of Education, both in methods and choice of books, &c. A large number of the secondary special schools work together with the primary schools; in fact, the majority of the lower grade of artizans' special schools are merely the outcome of the primary school in connexion with which they were founded, and work, where advisable. in common with it. The changes that have taken place since 1865 in this respect are such as to have completely transformed secondary education in Austria into an institution which is intended to take the place of and improve upon the old system of apprenticeships; but the tendency has been entirely of a practical and utilitarian nature to the exclusion of general education, where it is considered to be unnecessary beyond an elementary degree.

8. Private schools are uncommon in Austria, as every branch of education, from the universities to the primary schools, falls under the direct control of the Ministry of Education, with which, especially in the matter of finance, it is difficult for private enterprise to compete, excepting in the case of some of the more advanced kinds of commercial training colleges, which had been already founded by private individuals before the State took this side of education under its protection. There is, however, now no tendency to increase the number of these private commercial schools.

REPLIES received from Dr. TH. GOMPERZ, Vienna.

SIR, Vienna, June 25, 1894.

I HASTEN to reply to your questions concerning secondary schools in Austria, although I feel unable to answer all the questions contained in the Paper of Queries.

1. As to the proportions of the secondary schools provided by the State and by private enterprise respectively, the answer is a very simple one. The schools of this description provided by private enterprise form a minimum scarcely worth mentioning, as compared with those provided by the State, even thus the tendency of this minimum is rather towards decrease than towards increase. Suffice it to say that Vienna, with its

host of "Gymnasia" and "Realschulen" possesses at present no more than one gymnasium and one "Realschule" provided by private enterprise. But there is another distinction not mentioned in your paper, viz., between secondary schools provided by the central government and those provided either by the provincial government or by the municipalities of the single towns. Even here the preponderance of the central government is very great, and the tendency is rather to a further absorption at least of the municipal schools by those of the State than otherwise. In Vienna, there will be in a short time but small remnants, if any, of municipal secondary schools, though a considerable number of them have been founded by the municipality, by far the greater part of which have lately been put under the direct control of the central government.

2. As to the proportion of the total cost of education covered by the scholars' fees, I am unable to say more than that the latter amount to 50 florins per annum in both the above-mentioned categories of secondary schools. With an average of about 50 scholars in each of the eight respectively, seven classes of a gymnasium and a "Realschule" the total amount of the fees would be something near 20,000 florins. This sum might approximately go to pay the salaries of the teachers. But it would be altogether inadequate to defray the total cost of education, including the interest of the capital invested in the educational establishments (houses, collections of natural history objects, libraries, laboratories, &c.), even if that calculation would not be altogether falsified by the fact that a very considerable number of these scholars are either totally or partly exempted from the duty of paying fees.

3. My personal opinion is that the access to secondary schools and to universities ought to be entirely free, or rather exclusively dependent on the result of a test examination.

As to giving aid to poor scholars of promise, I know of no better plan than that adopted in our country, viz., to relieve them, when their abilities are sufficiently tested, from the duty of paying fees, and further to assist them by the lending of books, and even by pecuniary aid, provided this be done in a sufficiently cautious and judicious way, so as not to create an artificial stimulus to study, or to some particular branch of study.

4. I do not not know of any systematic attempt to bring "technical into proper relation with general education." To technical education a considerable number of industrial schools (partly of a general, partly of a special character) are devoted, and sometimes the industrial school and the "Realschule" are dwelling under the same roof, and teachers of the one are giving instruction in the other. Besides the "Realschule," standing as it does in the same relation to technical high schools in which the gymnasium stands to the universities, contains, of course, a large element of technical education, considerable attention being paid to descriptive geometry and to drawing, free-hand drawing as well as geometrical drawing. In the gymnasia, drawing until now only an optional subject of study (like English, French, or shorthand writing), but attention has of late been called to the desirableness of making it an imperative branch of study. The inaugural address of one of the last rectors of the Vienna University (Professor Tschermak), has set forth strong arguments in favour of this view of the subject, but decisive steps have as yet not been taken in official quarters. Facilities for learning a trade, not with the view of making a livelihood by it, are afforded to the pupils of the "*Theresianum*" at Vienna, an establishment founded by the Empress Maria Theresa, harbouring boys and young men, chiefly belonging to the nobility, both in the phase of their gymnasial and their university (law) studies.

5. Secondary schools teachers are trained exclusively in the universities or to speak more strictly, in that department of the universities which, in Germany and Austria, is called "*Philosophische facultät.*" They form, indeed, the main stock of the students belonging to this part

of the university. They are attending lectures, working in "seminaries" (philological, physical, &c.), like every other student. As to a special preparation for their future calling, there is little to be found of it. There is indeed a chair in each university, occupied by a professor of pedagogics whose lectures the candidates have to attend, and by whom, among many other professors, they are examined before leaving the university. As to the value of this training in pedagogy, opinions are divided. The prevailing opinion is that candidates who have thoroughly mastered their special subjects, are likely to be good teachers, and that their usefulness is not likely to be much enhanced by the cultivation of pedagogics. On the other hand, the complaint is often heard that the young professors in secondary schools are too prone to overlook the difference between university courses and the instruction required for school boys. Considerable stress is now being laid on the practical instruction given to the young teacher by the director and the older teachers of the secondary school, at which he is passing through his year of probation ("*Probejahr*").

6. On this head I have nothing to say, wanting the experience required for answering it properly. But there is a certain affinity between this question and another often, and vehemently debated in our country. Parents complain not unfrequently that their boys are over burthened in the Latin schools or gymnasia. Now, my own opinion is that this complaint is—basing exceptional cases—altogether groundless. Fairly gifted boys go very easily through their curriculum, and find plenty of time for reading and other favourite occupations. But what is true, is, that the gymnasia themselves are overburthened, being overstocked by a set of unfit scholars. Boys who, according to their general powers and special abilities, ought to pass through a "Realschule" or an industrial school, are forced into the gymnasium, because the family tradition wills it so, and they seem to lose caste if they choose another path of education. This social prejudice, or social vanity, is at the bottom of the chief evils now connected with our secondary education.

7. There has not been a radical reform in our system of secondary education since the epoch you mention. But there have been a considerable number of minor changes, most of them tending to lighten the burthens of which parents are so much complaining. And since the object of these complaints are chiefly and naturally the branches of study devoid of an immediate or practical usefulness, or at least of a usefulness perceptible to average parental eyes, the consequences has been that the classical studies have had to bear the brunt of these epeated attacks, and have been consequently diminished in quantity and, perhaps, a little improved in quality, while the plan of studies obtaining in the "Realschule" has been suffered to remain unaltered, although there, if anywhere, there is some ground for what we call the *Überbürdungsklage.*"

7. The answer to this question has been implicitly given under the head No. 1.

Finally, I must remark that in speaking of secondary schools I had constantly in view gymnasia and "Realschulen," being altogether unacquainted with industrial schools, agricultural schools, &c. Let me conclude by saying that I have no objection whatever to any of the above remarks being made public if you deem them worth publishing.

I am, &c.
Dr. Th. Gomperz.

BELGIUM.

REPLIES received through the FOREIGN OFFICE.

1. In 1890 there were for boys :—
20 Government "Atheneés," *i.e.*, secondary schools of 1st degree.
79 Government secondary schools, *i.e.*, secondary schools of 2nd degree.
8 communal and provincial schools of 1st degree subventioned by Government.
5 communal and provincial schools of 2nd degree.
3 communal and provincial schools unsubventioned.

115 Total Government and communal schools for boys.

36 Government schools for girls.
6 subventioned communal schools for girls.
1 unsubventioned communal school for girls.

43 Government schools for girls.

Or a total of 158 Government and communal schools for boys and girls. Total of Government schools.

Of schools kept by religious bodies there were for boys :—
62 of the 1st degree.
43 of the 2nd degree.
3 of the 1st and 2nd degree mixed.

108 Total for boys, and
153 for girls.

261 Total schools kept by religious bodies. Total schools kept by religious communities.

Of private schools for boys, there were 9 of the 1st degree, 10 of the 2nd, and 6 mixed, or a total of 25
And for girls 39

Total 64 private schools. Total private schools.

2. In 1890 the total expense of Secondary Education for boys and girls, including the "Athenées" was, francs 6,308,817 (252,352*l.*), of which— Total expense of secondary education.

1. The Government gave 3,352,394 francs (134,095*l.*).
2. The provinces „ 43,662 „ (1,746*l.*).
3. The communes „ 1,690,982 „ (67,639*l.*).
4. Pupils' fees „ 1,062,484 „ (42,500*l.*).

According to the laws of 1850 (Article 25), and 1881 (Article 9), the sum allotted annually by the State for secondary schools cannot exceed, on an average, 4,000 francs per school, and the commune where an "Athenée" or secondary State school is situated, is obliged to place at the disposal of the Government a suitable building, in good order, and also to maintain the same at its expense. The commune also contributes to the working expenses an annual subvention which shall not exceed one-third of the total expense. They also provide ground and apparatus for gymnastics, &c., but in the case of communes which are in some cases financially unable to find the money for the expenses of first instalment, class-room furniture, &c., the Government has been allowed to grant subsidies to assist them. This for secondary boys and girls schools (exclusive of Athenées), amounted to about 60,000 francs (2,400*l.*), in the three years 1888–90.

The amount of the fee paid by pupils varies in almost every school, and is determined by the Board of Directors, who base their decision upon local circumstances, ability to pay of the pupils, &c.

Some of the provinces also give subventions, but the matter is an entirely optional one with them, and their grants in 1890 amounted to 43,662 francs (1,746*l.*).

There was also a small sum (760*l.*) available in 1890 from endowments.

While the total expenses in 1890 were 252,352*l.*, the receipts were 254,146*l.*

3. Admission to the establishments of Secondary Education directed by the State, whether (1) Athenées, or (2) secondary schools, takes place after an examination on the following subjects, viz., elements of French Grammar, as well as Flemish or German, in that part of the country where those languages are spoken, grammatical analysis, elements of the geography of Belgium, the four first rules of arithmetic, and weights and measures. Moreover, the candidate must know how to write legibly and correctly from dictation.

(*b*) Passage from one class to another in "Athenées" and secondary schools takes place after the quarterly examination, and the candidate is obliged to get one-half of the marks assigned to each of the subjects which are taken up for the examination which is done in writing.

A candidate who is disqualified in one or more subjects may be allowed on trial to follow the course of the class for which he presented himself.

Organisation of secondary schools.

The organisation of secondary schools has been altered, in so far that the two lower classes of secondary schools, have ceased to have the same teaching as the two lower classes of the "Athenées." The consequence is that the secondary schools have now an entirely distinct organisation to the "Athenée," and the idea would seem to be that these schools should adopt a more practical programme, as opposed to a literary one. The hours of study in these schools is about 29 per week.

Free admissions.

Admissions either free or at reduced prices, in secondary schools, are allowed by the administrative bureau, on the request of the director of the school. The decision of the "bureau" has to be ratified by the governor of the province.

The qualifications for these admissions are: 1. That the parents should be in needy circumstances. 2. Preference to be given to the children of civil or military employés, or to the orphans of such employés.

The sons of professors or overseers in the "Athenées," the sons of professors in secondary schools, whether on the active list or retired, have reciprocally the right of free attendance at the school courses, *i.e.*, the sons of a professor at an "Athenée" can attend a secondary school, and *vice versâ*. This permission is only granted for one year at a time, and can be renewed on application, as likewise it may be cancelled for misconduct by the director. Admissions at reduced rates can only be granted on a favourable report as to character and application being given by the director. The number of free admissions cannot surpass one-tenth of the total number of pupils in secondary schools placed in towns, where there is either a Royal "Athenée" or a communal college in receipt of a subsidy by the State. In other secondary schools these admissions must not exceed one-seventh of the total attendance.

The Government Post and Telegraph Staff are allowed to join the classes for modern languages in the "Athenées" and secondary schools free of expense.

Premiums ("bourses d'étude").

In each of the years 1888-9-90, the Government voted 33,000 francs to be divided among 115 secondary schools belonging to the State, for premiums (bourses d'étude) as follows:—

1. A premium of 150 francs, and a third of a premium of 150 francs, *i.e.*, 50 francs to secondary schools having less than 25 pupils.
2. A premium of 150 francs and a half-premium (75 francs) for secondary schools having from 25 to 35 pupils.
3. 150 francs, and two-thirds of a full premium (*i.e.*, 100 francs) for schools of from 35 to 45 pupils.
4. Two premiums of 150 francs to secondary schools of over 45 pupils.

The premiums are reserved for pupils, Belgian by birth, whose parents do not live in the place where the secondary school is situated, and who are without fortune.

No premiums of this sort are given to the "Athenées."

The number of free admissions and at a reduced price were in 1890 :—

Details of free admissions, &c. for 1890.

	Number of Pupils.	Free Admissions.	At reduced Rates.
Athenées (20) - - -	5,726	566	412
Secondary schools for boys (79) -	12,475	1,446	1,217
Secondary schools for girls (36) -	5,721	445	549
Communal colleges for boys (8) -	564	82	73
Communal secondary schools for boys (5).	1,482	195	133
Communal secondary schools for girls (7).	1,237	229	66
Other communal subventioned establishments (etablissements patronnés) :—			
(*a.*) Colleges - -	831	26	31
(*b.*) Schools - -	392	15	—
Total - -	28,428	3,004	2,481

4. The official course in the secondary schools in Belgium is of a scientific and literary character, and tends to exclude technical instruction. It does not pretend to be a definite preparation for a professional career; its aim is rather to give pupils a general education.

Technical education is, however, making some progress, for, since 1880, courses of elementary agriculture have been organised in some 28 of the secondary State schools. These courses, however, do not form part of the official programme, and the attendance is voluntary. In the "Athenée" at Ostend, and in the secondary schools at Nieuport and Blankenberghe, courses in elementary navigation are given.

The official (obligatory) programme of secondary education for girls included needlework and domestic economy, and a special examination is made in these courses.

Independent of the secondary schools, the communes of Brussels, Liège, Mons, Ixelles, and Schaerbeck have instituted schools for the professional training of girls in household duties (écoles professionelles et écoles menagères), which are reported to be in a prosperous state, and destined to further development in the future.

5. Previous to the law of February 6th, 1887, professors of the secondary schools of higher degree ("athenées," &c.) were exclusively trained in two establishments, under the direction of the State, one at Ghent for those preparing to teach physical science and mathematics, and the other at Liège for philology, history, and geography. On leaving these training schools a diploma had to be obtained in order to become a professor in an "athenée," communal college, or provincial college.

Holders of a university degree admitted as teachers on same footing as those for Government training schools (law of 1887).

System changed by law of 1890. Introduction of present system.

The above-mentioned law of 1887 admitted as teachers on the same footing as pupils of the above institutions those who had a university degree as doctors in philosophy or doctors in science. Thus the staff of teachers of secondary schools of the first degree could be recruited either from these State training schools or from the universities. However, since the law of November 10th, 1890, which abolished those training schools, those who aspire to be professors in secondary schools of the first or higher degree must follow their studies at a university and get the degree of doctor of philosophy or of science either before the examiners of the university or before the central board of examiners founded by the State ("jury central").

For the secondary schools of higher degree for boys and girls (*i.e.*, secondary schools properly so called), the professors of both sexes have to be provided with a special diploma granted by the State board of examiners.

Candidates may present themselves for examination, without regard to the place where he or she previously studied. Nevertheless, the Government supports two establishments ("sections normales") for men, one at Ghent, and the other at Nivelles, and also two such establishments for women who wish to become instructors in these schools. The course in these establishments extends over two years. Moreover, a certain number of religious bodies train young men and women, so as to enable them to pass the examination for a teacher's diploma above mentioned.

The fees for examination are 20 francs for an "aspirant professeur" and 50 francs for a "professeur agrégé," *i.e.*, certified teacher. Should the candidate be disqualified on examination he may present himself again, but not in the same term, and he pays a reduced fee, a quarter in the first case, and one-half in the second.

The members of the examining board are paid 25 francs for the president and 18 francs for other members, for each working day of six hours. In addition to the written examination, an "aspirant professeur" is examined vivâ voce for 2½ hours, divided as follows :—

	H.	M.
French or Flemish	0	25
A modern language	0	20
History and geography	0	25
Arithmetic and algebra	0	20
Geometry	0	15
Natural science	0	20
Physiology, logic, &c.	0	25
	2	30

For the examination of "professeur agrégé" there are two vivâ voce examinations of about the same length, in which are included the giving of two lessons of 25 minutes each.

To pass, 65 per cent. of the points granted must be obtained, and 50 per cent. of the points given for the lessons.

6. It is almost impossible to answer this question, as it requires an intimate knowledge of the interior of the country, and no official statistics exist on the point. The fact exists, no doubt, that in Belgium, as in other countries, the depression in agricultural circles has determined many small farmers to prolong the period at school for their children, in the hope, which is frequently frustrated, of seeing them get at once into lucrative situations. It is hoped that instruction in agricultural science may, in some slight degree, contribute to improve the position ; but, as far as I can learn, with a higher standard of education, there arises likewise a dislike for manual labour among those whom one might expect would earn their living in that way.

7. Since 1865 the system of instruction in Belgium has undergone various changes.

Up to 1881 the programme of studies at the "athenées" and secondary schools was submitted to an annual revision. It was then found that this plan did away with all fixity in the system, and that the want of stability was very discouraging to the teachers. In 1881 the Government decided that the "athenées" should reserve the first two years of study to languages, mathematics, and history, and should only begin classical or professional studies in the third year.

This system was given up in 1888, and the following one was substituted:—

Present course in the "Athenées."

The course was to be of seven years, and seven corresponding classes were instituted. The course was divided into what one might term—

1. The Latin side.
2. The Latin and Greek side.
3. The modern side.

As above stated, the course is the same up to the third year, when the subdivision takes place.

Taking the Latin side as an example, the following subjects are taught:—

Religion.
Latin.
French.
Flemish.
English or German (obligatory).
Do. do. (non-obligatory).
History.
Geography.
Mathematics.
Natural science.
Drawing, and
Gymnastics, two hours a week during recreation time. The hours of study vary from 29 to 31 per week.

In the Latin-Greek side, Greek is added, and the hours given to the other studies remain much the same.

On the modern side, Latin and Greek are omitted, and more time is given to natural science, drawing, and languages.

Course in the secondary schools.

In secondary schools, properly so called, for boys and girls the course at present consists of—

(1.) French and Flemish or German, in the parts of the country where those languages are spoken.
(2.) Arithmetic, elementary algebra and geometry, drawing and measuring, &c.
(3.) Writing, book-keeping, and elements of commercial law.
(4.) Elements of natural science, as applied to daily life.
(5.) Elements of geography and history, especially the geography of Belgium.
(6.) Vocal music and gymnastics.

The course is for three years, and, if found necessary, a preparatory section may be attached, where subjects would be taught as in a primary school.

The age of admission to a primary school is 6 years, and to a secondary school 11 years.

The organisation of secondary schools has been altered, as explained on page 5, and the tendency would seem to be towards the secondary schools adopting a more practical programme.

8. It is reported that during the past few years there has been a considerable increase in the number of private schools in the country.

I cannot ascertain the cause, but the subsidies which are, under certain conditions, given to such establishments, whether founded by religious bodies or by private individuals, may have tended somewhat to this increase.

The total number of Government and communal schools, and those kept by religious bodies or by private individuals, will be found in answer 1.

ARTHUR HERBERT.

British Legation, Brussels,
September 29, 1894.

REPLIES received from M. EMILE GREYSON.

1. Aux termes de l'art. 17 de la Constitution belge, l'enseignement est libre; toute mesure préventive est interdite; la répression des délits n'est règlée que par la loi. L'instruction publique, donnée aux frais de l'État, est également règlée par la loi.

C'est-à-dire qu'en Belgique tout le monde peut ouvrir un établissement d'enseignement secondaire, sans que le Gouvernement ait un droit de contrôle quelconque sur cet enseignement.

Ce n'est que depuis 1850, vingt ans après la Révolution qui nous valut notre indépendance, qu'une loi est intervenue pour régler l'enseignement moyen donné aux frais de l'État, cette loi porte la date du 1st Juin 1850. Modifiée dans quelques uns de ses dispositions par des lois successives du 15 Juin 1881, du 20 Septembre 1884, du 6 Février 1887, et des 10 Avril 1890 et 3 Juillet 1891, elle est restée debout dans son ensemble.

L'État, c'est-à-dire le Gouvernement, les provinces et les communes, possède au 30 Mai 1894, savoir:—

Le Gouvernement - -	20 Athénées.
	79 Écoles moyennes pour garçons.
	34 Écoles moyennes pour filles.
Les Provinces - -	(n'ont érigé aucun établissement).
Les Communes - -	7 Collèges, tous subventionnés par le trésor public.
	5 Écoles moyennes pour garçons, tous subventionnées par le trésor public).
	6 Écoles moyennes pour filles, etc., etc.
	7 Collèges patronnés.
	4 Écoles moyennes patronnées.
Soit en tout -	162 Établissements d'enseignement moyen tombant dans le régime de la loi.

Tous les autres établissements d'enseignement secondaires sont entièrement libres.

D'après un tableau inséré parmi les annexes du 13me. Rapport triennial sur l'enseignement moyen, le nombre des établissements libres était au 31 Decémbre 1890; savoir:—

Collèges et séminaires dirigés par les évêques - -	51
,, par les Jesuites - - - - -	13
,, par d'autres congrégations religieuses - -	12
,, par les particuliers - - - -	17

Écoles moyennes ou établissements d'enseignement moyen du degrè inférieur pour garçons:—

Dirigées par les Evêques - - - -	12
Par des congrégations religieuses - - - -	15
Par des particuliers - - - - -	—
Établissements d'enseignement moyen pour filles:—	
Dirigés par des congrégations réligieuses - -	153
Dirigés par des laics - - - - -	39
Total - - -	312

indépendamment de certains établissements qui surgissent tout à coup et qui disparaissent parfois de même, lorsque ce sont des particuliers qui les érigent.

2. Dans les Écoles secondaires de l'État du degré superieur, c'est-à-dire dans les Athenées royaux créés par le Gouvernement, le minerval scolaire appartient, en principe, tout entier aux membres du personnel enseignant et leur est distribué par parts égales. Le minerval constitue une partie de leurs revenus.

Il n'en est pas de même dans les écoles du degré imférieur c'est-à-dire dans les Écoles moyennes créés par le gouvernement.

Là, le montant du minerval scolaire constitue une des ressources destinées avec les subsidés de l'État et de la Commune, siège de l'établissement, à couvrir les dépenses ordinaires.

3. Nul n'est admis dans la classe inférieure d'un Athénée royal ou d'une école moyenne de l'État qu'à la suite d'un examen portant sur les matières principales qui s'enseignent dans les écoles primaires.

Toutefois les élevès venant des établissements publics peuvent être dispensés de l'examen sur la production d'un certificat qui en tienne lieu.

Un examen de passage d'une classe à une autre est exigé des élèves qui, dans les compositions des deux dernières séries de l'année-scolaires n'ont pas obtenu la moitié des points affectés à chaque branche de l'enseignement de leur classe.

Il n'y a pas, à proprement parler, d'examen de passage de l'enseignement moyen à l'enseignement universitaire. Mais aux termes de la loi du 10 Avril 1890 sur la collection des grades academiques, nul n'est admis à l'examen de candidat en philosophie et lettres, de candidat en sciences naturelles ou de candidat notaire, s'il ne justifie par certificat qu'il a suivi avec fruit un cours d'humanités de dix années au moins, y compris la rhétorique; à l'examen de candidat en sciences physiques et mathématiques, s'il ne justifie par certificat qu'il a suivi avec fruit un cours d'études professionnelles de cinq années au moins, y compris la première scientifique, ou un cours d'humanités de dix années, y compris la rhétorique, plus le cours de mathématiques de la première scientifique.

A défaut de certificat ou si le certificat présenté n'est par homologué par un jury spécial institué ad hoc, le récipiendaire est tenu de subir un examen préparatoire sur une série de matières déterminées par la loi et qui sont empruntées à ce qui constitue l'enseignement dans les établissements publics d'instruction moyenne.

La loi de la 1 Juin 1850 n'a point institué de bourses en faveur des élèves pauvres ou bien doués qui fréquentent les établissements d'enseignement moyen de l'Etat.

Le Gouvernement accorde aux élèves des écoles moyennes un certain nombre de bourses sans que dans leur ensemble elles puissent dépasser la somme de 300 francs par école. Mais la loi a prévu l'octroi d'un certain nombre d'admissions gratuites ou à prix réduit dans les institutions de l'Etat.

4. Aux termes de la loi du 1er Juin 1850, il y a dans chaque Athénée royal deux enseignements; l'enseignement des humanités classiques qui comprend actuellement sept années d'études, et un enseignement professionnel qui comprend actuellement aussi sept années d'études.

L'enseignement de la section professionnelle laquelle est divisée en deux sections: 1. Section commerciale et industrielle; 2. Section scientifique.

Cette dernière surtout prépare aux études techniques supérieures (ingénieurs des mines, des arts et manufactures, ingénieurs des constructions civiles, ingénieurs mécaniciens et électriciens, etc.).

La programme de la section professionnelle comprend, d'après la loi, savoir:—

1. La rhétorique et d'études approfondies de la langue française ainsi que de la langue flamande ou allemande, dans les parties du pays ou ces langues sont en usage; l'étude pratique de la langue flamande ou de la langue allemande, pour les parties du pays où ces langues ne sont pas en usage, et la langue anglaise.
2. L'étude des mathématiques élémentaires et, en outre, la géométrie analytique, la géométrie descriptive, la trigonométrie sphérique, *avec leurs applications aux arts, à l'industrie, et au commerce.*
3. Les éléments de la physique, de la mécanique, de la chimie, de l'histoire naturelle, et de l'astronomie.
4. La tenue des livres, les éléments de droit commercial et d'économie politique.

5. Les éléments de l'histoire et de la géographie moderne, et, en particulier, les éléments de l'histoire et de la géographie de la Belgique, des notions des institutions constitutionelles et administrateurs.
6. Les éléments des arts graphiques (dessin et calligraphie), la musique vocale et la gymnastique.

Dans les écoles moyennes l'enseignement comprend:—

1. L'étude approfondie de la langue française, et, en outre, de la langue flamande ou allemande pour les parties du pays où ces langues sont en usage.

   Le Gouvernement a en outre créé un cours de langue anglaise, cours facultatif, comme l'est aussi l'un des cours d'allemand ou de flamand, dans la partie du pays où ces deux derniéres langues ne sont pas en usage.
2. La géométrie démontrée, les éléments d'algébre et de géométrie, le dessin, principalement le dessin linéaire, l'arpentage et les autres éléments de la géométrie pratique;
3. L'écriture, la tenue des livres et des notions de droit commercial.
4. Des notions des sciences naturelles applicables aux usages de la vie.
5. Les éléments de la géographie et de l'histoire, et surtout de l'histoire et de la géographie de la Belgique.
6. La musique vocale et la gymnastique.

Il est ainsi fait, dans notre enseignement secondaire des Athénées surtout, une part assez large à ce qui constitue la préparation à un enseignement technique plus développé, lequel se donne dans les écoles spéciales annexées aux Universités.

Il est à remarquer qu'il existe en Belgique un certain nombre d'écoles industrielles et professionnelles, dirigées par les communes avec le concours pécuniaire de l'État. Cet enseignement est un enseignement plus spécialement destiné à former des chefs d'atélier et même des ouvriers intelligents (voir l'ouvrage intitulé: *L'enseignement spécial en Belgique*, par H. Bertiaux, et qui fait partie de la *Bibliothèque des connaissances modernes*. Bruxelles, Ch. Rozez, editeur).

5. J'ai fait dans mon livre sur *l'enseignement public en Belgique* (tome II., aperçu historique et exposé de la Legislation de l'enseignement moyen) l'histoire des différentes phases par lesquelles ont passé les conditions exigées de ceux qui aspirent à entrer dans la carrière professorale des Athénées et des collèges. Je ne puis que me référer à ces enseignements pour le passé.

Actuellement, et depuis les lois du 10 Avril 1890 et 3 Juillet 1891, il faut désormais être porteur du diplôme de docteur en philosophie et lettres ou en sciences (mathématiques ou naturelles) pour être nommé préfet des études ou professeur dans un Athénée royal ou dans un collège communal.

La collation de la preuve de capacité appartient aussi à l'enseignement universitaire.

6. Dans tous les pays du Continent, en Allemagne surtout, le travers de faire aborder des études classiques par tous les jeunes gens indistinctement et de les detournér ainsi de la voie réelle que leurs goûts et leurs aptitudes leur tracent naturellement, augmente le nombre des écolaires et ajunte au péril social.

La Belgique n'a pas échappé à cette situation. Mais je pense que l'existence d'un enseignement secondaire professionnel ou spécial, semblable à celui des sections d'humanités modernes de nos Athénées, en a quelque peu amorti l'effet.

L'accès des universités devrait être rendu plus difficile encore qu'il ne l'est dans l'empire de notre legislature actuelle. Il faudrait un examen sévère pour le passage de l'enseignement classique à l'enseignement

universitaire que l'on rendrait abordable seulement aux jeunes gens réellement bien doués et appelés à fournir dans le domaine scientifique une carrière utile.

J'ai fait dans mon livre sur l'enseignement moyen (Bibliothèque des Connaissances utiles : *L'enseignement public en Belgique, aperçu historique et exposé de la legislation*, tome II, Enseignement moyen, pp. clxxiii. et suivantes) l'historique de ce qui constitue le mode de formation des professeurs d'Athénées et des Collèges ainsi que des écoles moyennes. Je ne puis que m'y référer en ce qui concerne cette partie de la question 7.

Quant aux relations des professeurs avec l'État, elles sont restées ce qu'elles ont été depuis 1850, époque à la quelle la loi et les règlements ont déterminé le mode de nomination de ces professeurs. Des modifications importantes ont été apportées en 1875 à la position pécuniaire des membres du personnel enseignant des Athénées et des écoles moyennes. Ces traitements ont été augmentés et alloués d'après des règles nouvelles (voir le volume précité : Les professeurs; leurs traitements et émoluments, pp. li. et suivantes).

A proprement parler les changements apportés depuis une 30 d'années dans l'organisation de l'enseignement primaire n'ont pas exercé une action trop fâcheuse sur la préparation des élèves en une de l'enseignement moyen. Il est vrai qu'en principe on peut dire que tel sera l'enseignement primaire, tel sera l'enseignement moyen; mais les programmes d'abord renforcés dans l'empire de la loi du 1st Juillet 1879, puis simplifieés dans certaines parties, dans l'empire de la loi de 20 Septembre 1884, n'ont pas en général eu un effet sensible sur les études moyennes proprement dites.

8. Nous supposons que c'est des écoles d'enseignement moyen qu'il s'agit ici.

D'après le relevé que j'ai donné en réponse à la 1ere question, il y avait au 31 Décembre 1890, 312 établissements d'enseignement moyen dirigés par les évêques, des corporations religieuses ou des particuliers.

D'après le 12th rapport triennal, le pays comptait au 31 Décembre 1887, savoir :—

Collèges et séminaires dirigés par les évêques -	44
,, dirigés par les Jesuites - - -	13
,, ,, par d'autres congrégations religieuses	8
,, ,, par des particuliers - - -	10
Écoles moyennes ou établissements d'enseignement moyen du degré inférieur pour garçons -	15
,, dirigées par les évêques - - -	1
,, par des congrégations religieuses - -	19
,, par des particuliers - - - -	12
Total - - -	267

Le chiffre des augmentations du 31 Décembre 1887, au 31 Décembre 1890, est donc de 55 établissements.

Antérieurement à 1887, c'est-à-dire, dès 1884, des établissements d'enseignements moyen de l'État érigés en 1881, avaient été supprimés. Quelques-uns ont, sans nul doute, été remplacés par des établissements libres. Mais le motif le plus probable de cet accroîssement, c'est l'essor plus grand que prend de jour en jour le parti conservateur, peu partisan de l'enseignement public, plus confiant dans l'enseignement confessionnel et faisant dans ce but des efforts incessants.

Bruxelles,
4 Juin 1894.

Ém. Greyson.

FRANCE.

REPLIES received from the MINISTER of PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

1. L'enseignement secondaire en France est donné dans trois catégories d'établissements:

1°. Les lycées et les collèges;
2°. les écoles secondaires libres;
3°. les écoles secondaires ecclésiastiques ou petits séminaires.

Les lycées sont fondés et entretenus par l'État avec le concours des Départements et des communes. (Loi du 15 mars 1850.)

Les collèges sont fondés et entretenus par les communes. Ils peuvent être subventionnés par l'État. (Loi du 19 mars 1850.)

Les écoles secondaires libres sont fondées et entretenues par des particuliers ou des associations; les Départements et les communes peuvent les subventionner, sous le contrôle de l'État.

Les écoles secondaires ecclésiastiques sont entretenues par les évêques; elles ne sont pas subventionnées par l'État.

L'État n'ayant le contrôle des recettes et des dépenses que dans les lycées, il est impossible de savoir dans quelle proportion l'initiative privée pourvoit à l'entretien des établissements compris dans les catégories 2 et 3.

Pour les lycées, la dépense totale, en 1887, s'est élevée à 33,277,655f. 14. L'État y a participé pour une somme de 9,818,220f. 67 (29°/₀); les Départements et les communes pour 1,206,589f. 84 (3.60 °/₀).

Les rétributions à la charge des familles des élèves ont atteint 21,174,232f. 28 (63 °/₀).

Pour les collèges, la dépense totale a été, en 1887, de 14,874,480f. La part de l'État a été de 2,588,071f. (17.33 °/₀); celle des Départements et des communes de 3,719,764f. (25 °/₀); celle des familles, de 8,360,145f. (56 °/₀).

En 1892, la dépense totale pour les lycées a été de 36,131,428f.; l'État a versé 13,954,439f.; les départements et les communes 1,414,050f. 08; les familles 20,526,042f. 23.

De ces derniers chiffres ressortent les proportions suivantes:

État	38.87 °/₀
Départements et communes	3.93 °/₀
Versements des familles	57.20 °/₀

Les lycées étant administrés pour le compte de l'État, les subventions versées par lui sont calculées de manière à couvrir l'excédent des dépenses sur les recettes.

Les collèges étant administrés pour le compte des villes, c'est sur le budget des villes que sont prélevées les sommes nécessaires pour couvrir, s'il y a lieu, le déficit.

L'État n'intervient que dans la limite des engagements qu'il a pris dans les traités passés entre lui et les villes, conformément à l'article 74 de la loi du 19 mars 1850. Dans la plupart de ces traités, il est stipulé que la moitié de la dépense afférente aux traitements des professeurs sera supportée par l'État.

En 1894, l'État a dépensé pour les collèges 3,512,950f.; les villes 3,652,484f.

2. Les versements effectués par les familles représentent une recette essentiellement variable, puisque le chiffre en est subordonné au nombre des élèves, lequel n'est pas connu à l'avance et se modifie chaque année.

Il n'existe donc pas de base fixe pour établir la proportion d'après laquelle les "écolages" peuvent venir en diminution de la dépense.

3. Il existe en France deux ordres d'enseignement secondaire; l'enseignement classique et l'enseignement moderne.

L'enseignement classique est caractérisé principalement par l'étude du latin et du grec.

Dans l'enseignement moderne, le français, les langues étrangères et les sciences mathématiques et physiques occupent une place prépondérante.

Les classes proprement dites, pour chacun de ces deux ordres d'enseignement, commencent par la sixième.

La durée du cours normal des études est de sept ans dans l'enseignement classique, de six ans dans l'enseignement moderne.

a. Les programmes ont été combinés de telle sorte que les élèves puissent, au sortir des écoles primaires, entrer dans la classe de sixième.

Dans ce but, le début de l'étude du latin a été reporté en sixième à partir de l'année 1880. Le programme des classes inférieures à la sixième est presque identique à celui des écoles primaires. (Voir plans d'études et programmes de l'enseignement secondaire.)

b. Pour passer d'une classe dans une autre, les élèves de l'enseignement secondaire sont tenus de justifier d'une certaine moyenne de notes dans les diverses facultés que comporte le programme de la classe; ceux d'entre eux qui n'ont pas obtenu cette moyenne, sont astreints à un examen dit "de passage" qui est subi à l'intérieur de l'établissement. Les élèves qui échouent à l'examen sont tenus de redoubler la classe de l'année précédente. (Circulaires des 287, 1880 et 27 mai 1890.)

c. Le grade de bachelier, qui est délivré à la suite d'examens passés devant les Facultés aux élèves ayant terminé leurs études secondaires, permet de prendre des inscriptions dans les dites Facultés, en vue de l'obtention de grades supérieurs (Licence, Doctorat.)

L'État, les départements et les communes viennent en aide aux élèves pauvres en leur accordant des bourses qui leur permettent de suivre les cours des lycées et collèges.

Les bourses sont accordées après examen aux enfants qui se sont fait remarquer par leurs aptitudes. (Décret du 19 Janvier 1881.)

Le crédit inscrit au budget de l'État pour les bourses des lycées et colléges est de 2,926,879 francs.

Les départements et les communes dépensent environ chaque année pour cet objet 1,300,000 francs.

En outre, l'État accorde dans les lycées des remises ou réductions sur les frais de pension ou d'externat des élèves. Ces remises différent des bourses en ce qu'elles sont concédées pour une année seulement. Les conditions auxquelles est subordonnée l'obtention de ces faveurs sont, à peu de chose près, les mêmes que celles qui sont fixées pour les bourses. (Circulaire du 30 Juin 1890.)

Le crédit inscrit au budget pour les remises est de 874,600 francs.

4. L'instruction technique n'existe pas dans les lycées, l'enseignement secondaire ayant un caractère général; elle est donnée dans des écoles spéciales qui ne rentrent pas dans la catégorie des établissements secondaires.

Toutefois, il existe dans un certain nombre de lycées des cours préparatoires au concours d'entrée dans certaines écoles techniques (Écoles polytechnique, spéciale militaire, navale. Centrale, Institut agronomique, Ecole des Mineurs).

L'École polytechnique est destinée à assurer le recrutement des officiers de l'artillerie et du génie et celui des Ingénieurs de l'État.

L'École spéciale militaire forme des officiers pour l'armée de terre, l'Ecole navale pour la marine de l'État.

L'École centrale des Arts et Manufactures a pour but de former des Ingénieurs pour toutes les branches de l'industrie et pour les travaux et services publics dont la direction n'appartient pas nécessairement aux ingénieurs de l'État.

L'Institut agronomique est destiné à former des agriculteurs, des professeurs d'agriculture, des agents pour les administrations des Forêts et des Haras, &c.

L'Ecole des Mines forme des ingénieurs de mines et d'usines minéralogiques, et des contrôleurs des mines.

5. Il existe également dans certains lycées des cours préparatoires à l'École normale Supérieure. Cet établissement a été fondé en vue d'assurer, concurremment avec les Facultés, le recrutement des professeurs de l'enseignement secondaire et de l'enseignement supérieur. Les élèves y sont admis par voie de concours.

La majorité des futurs professeurs suivent les cours des Facultés afin de se préparer à la licence et ensuite à l'agrégation.

Des concours ont lieu chaque année en vue de l'attribution des bourses de licence.

Le grade universitaire exigé des candidats au Professorat des Facultés est le Doctorat.

6. Afin de remédier dans une certaine mesure à l'encombrement des carrières libérales, l'État, les Départements et les communes ont créé des écoles professionnelles ayant pour but de former des ouvriers habiles, des contre maîtres, des employés pour le commerce et l'industrie. Mais quelles que soient les mesures prises, l'action de l'État ne peut pas être trés efficace, les résultats à obtenir sont necéssairement subordonnés aux mœurs du pays et à sa situation économique.

Il convient d'observer d'ailleurs qu'en France, l'encombrement existe dans les carrières commerciales et industrielles comme dans le carrières dites libérales.

7. Parmi les modifications principales introduites depuis 1865 dans l'enseignement secondaire on peut signaler les suivantes :

1°. Une part plus large que par le passé a été faite dans les programmes à l'étude des langues étrangères et à celle des sciences.

2°. Les examens du baccalauréat ont été scindés en 2 parties, les épreuves de la 2e parties sont subies un an après celle de la 1e.

3°. L'enseignement moderne a été substitué à l'enseignement spécial ; celui-ci avait un caractère pratique et utilitaire ; l'enseignement moderne a un caractère général comme l'enseignement classique ; il a pour sanction finale, comme ce dernier des examens de baccalauréat.

4°. En vue de faciliter la préparation des candidats au professorat de l'enseignement secondaire, des bourses de licence et d'agrégation ont été instituées près les Facultés.

5°. Les lois du 25 mars 1873 et du 27 février 1880 ont assuré des garanties aux professeurs ; ceux-ci ne peuvent être frappés de peines disciplinaires graves qu'après avis ou jugement des Conseils universitaires.

6°. Les professeurs et les fonctionnaires des lycées et des collèges ont été répartis par classes d'après leurs grades universitaires et la durée de leurs services. Les classes et les traitements qui y sont attachés sont personnels et indépendants de la résidence. (Décrets des 16 juillet 1887, 7 janvier et 27 juin 1892.)

7°. L'enseignement secondaire des jeunes filles at été institué. (Loi du 21 decembre 1880).

Il n'y a pas eu de modification dans les rapports de l'enseignement primaire avec d'enseignement secondaire.

8. Le nombre des écoles secondaires privées a diminué depuis vingt ans :

On comptait :

en 1876	-	494	établissements dirigés par des laïques.
		319	„ „ ecclésiastiques.
Total	-	803	
en 1887	-	302	établissements laïques.
		349	„ ecclésiastiques.
Total	-	651	
en 1894	-	239	établissements laïques.
		378	„ ecclésiastiques.
Total	-	617	

La population scolaire de ces établissements n'a pas diminué dans la même proportion :

Le nombre des élèves était :

en 1876 de 31,249 dans les établissements laïques.
46,816 „ „ ecclésiastiques.

Total - 78,165

en 1877 de 20,174 dans les établissements laïques.
50,085 „ „ ecclésiastique.

Total - 70,259

en 1894 de 14,214 dans les établissements laïques.
56,340 „ „ ecclésiastiques.

Total - 70,554

Ces chiffres accusent une diminution sensible dans le nombre et la population scolaire des établissements dirigés par les laïques cette diminution s'explique par la difficulté qu'éprouvent des particuliers à lutter contre la concurrence qui leur est faite, d'une part par les établissements publics (lycées et collèges), d'autre part, par les établissements que soutient le clergé.

GERMAN EMPIRE.

Bavaria.

Replies received from the Bavarian Minister for Foreign Affairs.

(*Translation.*)

Sir, Munich, 31st July 1894.

In your note of the 26th June, along with a printed list of questions, you have expressed the wish to receive reliable information on Secondary Education in Bavaria, which shall also be correct in connection with the present state of the question.

The undersigned has not failed to put himself in communication with the Minister of Education and has now the honour, in answering the above-mentioned questions, to place at your disposal the following official publications, as received from the above-named Minister :—

1. The regulations for the students of the Bavarian universities.
2. The prospectus for the Munich technical school.
3. The conditions of examination for the masterships at the classical and technical schools in Bavaria.
4. The regulations for the classical gymnasia.
5. The regulations for the real gymnasia.
6. The regulations of the 25th June 1894 concerning the organisation of pro-gymnasia and Latin schools.
7. A separate printed extract from the publication of the statistical bureau concerning the principal results of the statistics of education in the kingdom of Bavaria for the school year 1891–1892.

The regulations for the "real" schools of the year 1877, copies of which are no longer to be had here, were issued by Kösel, bookseller at Kempten.

From the above-mentioned publications answers to the majority of the questions can be obtained, especially those relating to the passing of pupils from the national to the secondary schools, from one class of secondary schools to another, and from the secondary schools

to the universities and technical schools. Further as to the connection between technical instruction and general education, as to the university training of secondary school teachers, as well as information on the fact that, since the year 1865 (particularly in the last few years), important changes as regards the organisation in all the subjects here under consideration have resulted, as far as can be at present decided, in a perfectly corresponding success.

There remain to be added separately the following details:—

Of the Bavarian secondary schools, the classical and real gymnasia are Government institutions; the pro-gymnasia, real and Latin schools, belong partly to the district (*Kreis*), and partly to the community (*Gemeinde*).

In the case of the Government institutions by far the greater part of the costs are defrayed out of State funds. The pupils only contribute a very small proportion by the payment of school fees.

The latter are fixed for the gymnasia:—

For the three lower classes	-	30 marks a year.
For the three middle classes	-	36 „ „
For the three upper classes	-	40 „ „

For the pro-gymnasia, Latin, and real schools there exist no uniform regulations as to the payment of school fees, but it may be accepted as a general rule that they are in accordance with those of the gymnasia.

Apart from the help rendered by private beneficence, poor but deserving scholars are assisted by the remission of the school fees, by the distribution of school books, &c., gratis, by money grants and scholarships which are partly derived from endowments and partly from institutions, and finally by election as free scholars in endowed schools.

The question that scholars, on leaving the secondary, and especially the technical, schools, are said to display a lack of desire and an incapacity for manual labour, particularly for the various branches of industry, has not been the subject of any special experience in Bavaria in general. Further, there is ground for believing that those scholars who pass the leaving examinations of the secondary schools attain in general positions in public or private service such as are suitable to their capacities, and which correspond with their preliminary education. It cannot be said that, during the past few years in Bavaria there has been any material increase in the number of private schools which pretend to offer a substitute for the instruction imparted at the public secondary schools.

The undersigned is pleased also to make use of this opportunity to assure, &c.

VON MAIER.

HESSE.

REPLIES received through the FOREIGN OFFICE.

(*Translation.*)

ANSWERS TO QUERIES ON THE SUBJECT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN HESSE.

1. The following is a list of the Secondary Schools in the Grand Duchy:—

i. *State Schools.*

a. Nine gymnasia with nine classes each for scholars between the age of nine and 18 years.

b. Three gymnasia with a modern side (*real gymnasien*), also with nine classes, for scholars between nine and 18 years of age.

The above mentioned schools issue the qualifying certificates for the one year voluntary military service to those who have successfully passed through the four highest classes.

c. Fifteen modern schools (*real schulen*), each with seven classes, for scholars between nine and 16 years of age. In two of these, scholars who propose to go afterwards to a gymnasium are given special preparatory instruction in Latin and Greek. These schools may also give the qualifying certificate for the one year voluntary military service.

The course of instruction given in them is enclosed.

The majority of these schools are connected with preparatory schools for children between the age of six and nine. They are partly maintained by the State and partly by the towns in which they are situated.

ii. *Municipal Schools.*

a. One modern school, whose course of instruction is the same as that of the State modern schools. It is competent to issue the certificates for the one year voluntary military service to those who pass a final examination under the supervision of a Government Commissioner.

b. One modern school where scholars are also prepared for the gymnasia, and in which the course of instruction is that of the State schools.

c. Five secondary girl schools, which are conducted in the manner explained in the enclosed Report on the Victoria School at Darmstadt. With the Victoria School is connected a seminary for female school teachers.

d. In addition to these regular schools there are also 23 preparatory schools, whose educational programme and objects are the same as those of the middle and lower classes of the State schools and of the secondary girls schools. They have as a rule been started as private schools, and have been taken over by their respective towns.

The State schools and the municipal girl schools are placed under the direct control of the Education Department. The preparatory municipal schools, on the other hand, are in the first instance under the control of their respective district school boards, and only in the second instance under that of the above-named department.

iii. *Private Schools.*

Private schools do not play a great rôle in the Grand Duchy, the educational wants of the population being sufficiently supplied by the existing state and municipal schools. They are in the first instance under the control of their respective district school boards, and in the second under that of the Department of Education. The appointment of their teachers requires the approval of this Department. They do not receive any grant from State or communal funds.

a. Three private secondary schools, which follow in all essentials the course of instruction given in the modern schools. They are competent to give certificates for the one year voluntary military service to those who pass the final examination under the supervision of a Government Commissioner.

b. Seven secondary private schools for boys without authority to give these certificates.

The principal establishment of this class is the "Mary Institute of School Brothers," at Mainz, which prepares boys for the middle and lower classes of the State schools.

c. Eight small secondary private schools for boys and girls.

d. Twenty-three higher private schools for girls, of which ten are of average size and follow in all essentials the course of instruction given in the regular higher schools for girls. Five of them have English female teachers.

2. In five gymnasia all expenses not covered by the scholars' fees are paid by the State. In the Mainz Gymnasium these expenses are paid out of a public fund—the Mainz University Fund. In Worms and Offenbach, the school buildings are provided by the respective towns and

all other expenses not covered by the scholars' fees are paid by the State. In the Lanbach Gymnasium the town provides the school buildings and gives an annual grant of 225*l.*, while a further annual grant of 500*l.* is paid out of the family exchequer of the Counts of Solius-Lanbach. All other expenses not covered by the scholars' fees are defrayed by the State. In the case of gymnasia with a modern side (real gymnasien), and the more important modern schools (real schulen), the towns provide the school buildings and defray all material expenses, while the personal expenses are paid out of the scholars' fees. Any remaining expenses are borne in equal shares by the town and by the State. In the case of the other State modern schools the towns provide the school buildings and give a fixed annual grant, while the State defrays all the other expenses which are not covered by the scholars fees.

The total cost of the State schools, exclusive of the value of the rent of the school buildings, amounts to about 737,500*l.*, of which sum 312,000*l.* are covered by the scholars' fees, 93,500*l.* are paid by the communes, 82,500*l.* by other public funds, and 249,500*l.* by the State.

The rate of the scholars' fees is fixed in all cases, and is not affected by any fluctuation in expenditure.

They amount in the more important gymnasia and real gymnasia to 5*l.* 4*s.* in the six upper, and to 4*l.* 16*s.* in the three lower classes.

b. In the smaller gymnasia to 4*l.* 16*s.* and 4*l.* 4*s.* respectively.

c. In the more important modern schools to 4*l.* 4*s.* in the 1st and 2nd, to 3*l.* 16*s.* in the 3rd and 4th, to 3*l.* 2*s.* in the 5th, 6th, and 7th classes; and

d. In the other modern schools to 3*l.* 4*s.* in classes I. to III., and to 2*l.* 17*s.* in classes IV. to VII.

3. Scholars can go from an elementary to a higher school or passing an entrance examination to show that they possess the proper standard of efficiency. Promotions from one class to another of a secondary school take place at the end of the scholastic year, when a conference of the school teachers is held to decide as to which of the pupils have attained a sufficient degree of efficiency in their respective classes to warrant their promotion to a higher one.

The right of admission to the universities and to the public examinations held there is acquired on passing a special matriculation examination (*maturitäts-prüfung*) at the gymnasia and realgymnasia.

Aid is given to poor scholars of promise by the remission of all fees. Five per cent. of the total number of scholars can be admitted free, the conditions required being ability, want of means and merit.

4. The best means of attaining this end has been found to consist in the suitable training of the teachers and in the general system of instruction adopted in the higher classes. Care must be taken to lay down and to revise, as occasion requires, the rules governing the examination of teachers for the secondary schools, to introduce from time to time changes in the course of instruction and in the regulations for the matriculation examinations and to make a proper selection of teachers, especially of the head master. Occasional visits of inspection should also be paid to the schools by the controlling authorities.

5. Candidates for the post of a secondary school teacher must spend at least three years at a university and pass the examination prescribed. They have then to go through a year's course at a teachers' seminary in order to qualify themselves practically for their profession. The first establishment of this nature was founded at the Giessen Gymnasium in the year 1876. A second one was established in 1888, and is at present attached to the Darmstadt Gymnasium. The statutes relative to the organisation of these seminaries, which are in no way connected with the universities, are enclosed.

After leaving the seminary, candidates have to undergo a further practical course of a year at one of the secondary schools, and on the successful completion of this course they obtain a teacher's certificate.

Special funds are provided in the budget to defray the travelling expenses of teachers engaged in a course of archæological studies, or in the study of modern languages.

6. Cases of this kind are not very often met with in the Grand Duchy, and never to such an extent as to necessitate any preventive measures on the part of the Board of Education. Scholars of this class do not, so far as can be ascertained, frequent the secondary schools in any great numbers.

7. In the matter of secondary education considerable changes have taken place since the year 1865, which are intimately connected with the general changes that have taken place in Germany since that date. They have occurred in many different directions:—

i. *Organisation of Secondary Schools.*

a. Outwardly their organisation has been very little altered, but their number has risen from six to nine. Their course of instruction has repeatedly undergone revision with the object of bringing the demands of the present day for a more modern education, into harmony with the ideas of general culture, and the observance of approved traditions.

b. Real gymnasia.—These institutions are of recent creation.

c. Modern schools.—Their number has risen from 10 to 15, and the schools themselves have been transformed from schools of three and four classes, finishing with the 14th year into seven class schools continuing on to the 16th year.

d. Secondary girls' schools.—The number of the regular schools of this class has risen from three to five, while from being schools for girls under 14 years of age they have become higher schools for girls up to 16 years of age. One of them, the Victoria School at Darmstadt, has since 1877 been in connection with a seminary for female school teachers.

ii. *Teachers.*

The answer to Query 5 has already said all that is necessary respecting their training.

iii. *The Organisation of Elementary Education.*

This is regulated by the Popular School Law of June 16, 1874.

All the changes which have taken place in regard to education have followed a natural course of development, and been adopted in accordance with the requirements of the times.

8. The number of private schools has decreased of late years. This fact is to be explained by the extension and increase of the secondary public schools during the last 20 years.

PRUSSIA.

REPLIES received through the FOREIGN OFFICE.

(*Translation.*)

1. In Prussia there are:—

(*a.*) 206 higher schools entirely supported by the State.
6 endowed schools under Crown patronage.
7 schools, the income of which is derived partly from the State, and partly from other sources.

(*b.*) 293 municipal schools, and schools supported by endowments but not under Crown patronage.
17 private schools *mit Militärberechtigung*, *i.e.*, at which the examination qualifying for the shorter term of military service is held.

2. The total expenses of the State-*supported* schools amount to 13,930,236 marks, of which sum 6,058,660 marks 30 pfennings (or $\frac{1}{2}\frac{0}{3}$) is repaid in school fees.

The State-*assisted* schools cost altogether 8,169,147 marks, and receive school fees to the amount of 3,244,041 marks (or $\frac{2}{5}$).

We know of no principle on which it would be possible to settle the proportion.

3. There has been no change in the Prussian regulations affecting these questions. An account of the existing system is to be found on pages 54, 320, 322, and (as regards State-assisted schools) 385 of "Wiese's Regulations and Laws for Higher Schools in Prussia," Part I., 3rd edition (*Verordnungen und Gesetze für die höheren Schulen in Preussen. 3 Auflage. I. Abtheilung*), published by Wiegandt and Grieben; and in the accompanying Regulations, January 6, 1892.

4. The best arrangement has here proved to be the complete separation of general education from technical; the most satisfactory division of time being six years for general and two for technical.

5. The answer to this question may be found in the accompanying Regulations for the Examination of Teachers for Higher Schools (*Ordnung der wissenschaftlichen Prüfung für Lehrer an höheren Schulen*), February 5, 1887, and Regulations for the practical training of Teachers for Higher Schools (*Ordnung der praktischen Ausbildung für das Lehramt an höheren Schulen*), March 15, 1890.

The literary and scientific training is provided at the universities, the practical at colleges and higher schools.

6. This question must be answered in the affirmative as regards our country also. The causes are probably the same everywhere. In our opinion, there is no radical cure for the evil. The most successful remedy appears to be the establishment of numerous *Realschulen*, having only a short course of study.

7. Our system has not been altered. The above-mentioned regulations indicate all that has taken place.

8. No; there has been no considerable increase in the number of private boys' schools as compared with public schools (*öffentliche Schulen*).

Additional information may be found in the "History of the System of "Higher Schools in Germany during the 19th Century" (*Geschichte des höheren Schulwesens Deutschlands im neunzehnten Jahrhundert*), by Professor Dr. Rethwisch, a copy of which is sent herewith.

Prussia.

Replies received from Professor Friedersdorf of Halle.

(*Translation.*)

The questions distinguish between "public" and "private" schools, meaning by the latter all schools not in receipt of direct State aid.

This distinction is unknown in Germany, where all schools are open to all comers, and all are under the direction of the State.

The public higher schools of Prussia are:—

(1.) State schools.
(2.) Municipal schools.
(3.) Endowed schools.
(4.) Private schools.

(4.) Genuine private schools are seldom fully developed places of instruction, they generally have only three or four classes, and are chiefly preparatory for the high schools. I am not able to give the number of these establishments. They are under the supervision of the State, but conducted by private individuals.

(2.) The numbers of municipal schools varies widely in different provinces. In the poorer provinces of Eastern Prussia they are only to be found in large towns such as Königsberg, Dantzig, and Breslau; in the smaller towns they have been taken over by the State, and have either become regular State-supported schools, or the State contributes considerable sums towards their maintenance and interferes with their management to such an extent that their independence is completely lost.

In the well-to-do western provinces the number of municipal schools is considerable, possibly 50 per cent. of the whole number.

(3.) Endowed schools, *i.e.*, schools maintained out of pious bequests, are not numerous, but enjoy a widespread reputation. Instances may be found in the "*Kloster*," of Magdeburg, the "*Schulpforta*," of Thuringia, and the Franciscan foundations of Halle. These also are under State supervision, and some, particularly the Franciscan foundation, receive a large amount of State aid.

2. The school fees of all the higher schools in Prussia are the same, viz., 120 marks a year. The number of teachers changes with the number of scholars. The salaries of teachers are regulated by law according to their length of service. The State pays as much as is necessary to cover the difference between the fees and the salaries of the teachers, and other necessary expenses. The same rule is observed in schools which are not supported directly by the State, only in these the fees are in some cases higher. Here the difference between income from fees and total expenditure is made up by a contribution from the Commune or from endowments. Salaries are the same as in State schools.

3. There is no difficulty about the transfer of pupils from elementary to higher schools, because the subjects taught in the lower classes of secondary schools are generally the same as those taught in the four upper forms of an elementary school. Thus children who have been in these four classes pass without difficulty into the lower classes of a secondary school.

Those children who do not wish to attend an elementary school can attend the three classes of the preparatory divisions attached to the higher schools.

(*b.*) Promotion from class to class in the same school is decided by the teacher of the class in conference with the head master, on the result of examination.

(*c.*) Transition from the highest class of a school to the university is effected by means of an oral and written examination conducted by the head master and staff of a higher school, under the direction of the Royal Council of Education for the province.

Poor scholars are assisted.

(1) by free education in higher schools. In State schools fees are remitted to 10 per cent. of the scholars. In other establishments the per-centage is a little lower.

(2) by scholarships, *i.e.*, the interest on capital devoted to the needs of poor scholars.

(3) by the provision of books, &c. free of charge.

4. Technical instruction, together with general education, is best provided in real gymnasia. These teach Latin, French, English, and German, as well as mathematics, chemistry, physics, natural science, history, and geography.

To these must be added those Realschulen and upper Real schulen which do not teach Latin.

5. Secondary school teachers study those branches which they afterwards intend to teach for at least four years at the university. They then present themselves for examination before a Royal Examination Board, and after passing this examination they are obliged to spend two

years at a training college, where they receive practical preparation for their profession under the guidance of the director and senior masters. These training colleges are connected with secondary schools, but have no connection with the universities.

6. Of course it occasionally happens that some scholars attend the higher schools who would have done better in practical employments, but when they leave school they have no inclination for such work, and find it difficult to obtain any employment. The reason why young men crowd into the so-called higher professions is to be found, not so much in the higher remuneration which these professions offer, as in the greater esteem with which their members are regarded.

It is the aim of the newly established modern (*lateinlose*) schools to prepare boys for practical employments whilst giving a general education at the same time.

7. A full answer to this question would require the whole history of Prussian schools for the last 30 years. I can only refer to the regulations for secondary schools, and to the Prussian Journal (*Central blatt*) of Education for curricula.

8. Private schools which prepare for the public secondary schools have been largely established of late years in big towns. This is due to the fact that the rapid increase of population has outstripped the provision made in public schools.

Kingdom of Saxony.

Replies received from Professor Kuchenmeister, of the Schola Thomana, Leipzig.

1. There are in Saxony 17 classical gymnasia, nine ascending classes. Scholars must have attended the elementary schools, for three or four years previously, and have passed a leaving examination.

Out of these 17 institutions two in Dresden and two in Leipzig are supported by the town alone, one, the Vitzthumsches Gymnasium, in Dresden, is partly supported by the income arising from the foundation of a certain Count v. Vitzthum; the remaining ones are supported by the State. The two first mentioned schools have only the six upper classes; students must prepare for these schools in other gymnasia. There are no private schools of this rank except the above-mentioned Vitzthumsches Gymnasium.

2. Ten Realgymnasia with nine classes like the classical gymnasia. Three are supported by the State, and seven by the municipality.

3. Twenty-four Realschulen with six classes. These must according to the law all be supported by the municipality; nevertheless all of them receive an annual subsidy from the State of 12,000 marks, except three in Leipzig, and one in Dresden and Chemnitz. In return for this the minister claims the right to appoint the principal, and the senior masters, even if the municipal authorities do not voluntarily make over all the appointments to him.

Schools of this rank are also carried on as private enterprises. There are three such schools in Leipzig, and eight in Dresden whose leaving examinations are recognised by the State, while some others also exist which do not receive recognition.

School fees in the higher grade schools (*i.e.*, those with nine classes) amount to 120 marks. Parents who are not ratepayers pay 150 or 180 marks. In the lower schools (those with six classes) the fees vary in different towns from 60 to 180 marks, the smaller amount being the more general.

Pupils entering Gymnasia, Realgymnasia, and Realschulen, must have attended an elementary school for at least three years. In the case of Gymnasia and Realgymnasia, the limit is generally four years.

Provision is made for clever but poor students by means of free places or bursaries.

The three lower classes of the Gymnasia and Realgymnasia are so arranged that scholars can pass without difficulty from one kind of school to the other.

Gymnasia and Realschulen are not classified upon any common principle, but most Realschulen have three classes in which Latin is taught parallel with their three lower forms, so that their pupils may also pass on without difficulty into the lower forms of the higher schools.

Only students who have attended the higher schools and passed their leaving examination can be admitted to study for the four learned professions, and later on to the State examination. In Leipzig, however, chemists are admitted who have passed the lower school examination, provided that Latin was one of their compulsory subjects. Teachers from training colleges are also admitted if they have obtained "good" or "very good" in their examination. They may then proceed to the State examination in pedagogy, and obtain their doctor's degree.

Technical education is provided in special trade schools (*Gewerbeschulen*) which only admit students who have finished their general education, unless they wish to carry on their general and technical education side by side.

The professional education of teachers is given in training colleges. These are generally in direct relations with the universities, but quite recently some have been placed under the direction of gymnasium masters.

The number of scholars who take up any trade after leaving the above-named schools is so small that no trustworthy information is available with regard to them.

No general change has taken place in the curriculum of Gymnasia or Realgymnasia during the last 30 years, though in certain particulars alterations have been made both in the subjects taught and in the system of examination. Generally speaking, scholastic arrangements in Saxony correspond to those of Prussia.

Realschulen date mostly from 1865 and 1870.

No fundamental alterations have been made in the system of elementary education.

The number of private schools remains much the same as 30 years ago; any slight increase may be accounted for by the growth of population in the larger towns.

Kingdom of Saxony.

Replies received from Dr. Theodor Vogel.

It is assumed that "secondary schools" include only such schools as offer to young men an education higher than elementary and more liberal than that afforded by technical schools.

I therefore omit all mention of the 253 schools in the kingdom which afford special practical training for various kinds of trades, and also those schools which are intended as a preparation for professional occupations, such as military, commercial, and agricultural schools.

There are besides these 73 secondary schools in the Kingdom of Saxony, namely 17 gymnasia, 10 Real Gymnasia, 29 Realschulen, in which Latin is not taught, and 17 normal schools for primary education.

1. Only six out of the 73 schools are private venture schools, and these are all Realschulen. The rest are State or communal endowed schools, with or without State subsidies.

2. In accordance with an order of December 2nd 1889, one-third of the cost of education in Gymnasia, Real Gymnasia, and Realschulen, is covered by fees; but in normal schools for teachers the proportion of fees to the total cost is about 1:23. No important change has taken place since the above date.

3. All scholars admitted to any secondary school must pass an entrance examination. Children entering the lower forms of a Gymnasium or Realschule must have attended an approved elementary school for three or four years. Persons entering the lower classes of a normal school must have reached the highest standard of a middle elementary school.

The curriculum of the four different grades of schools is so far similar that a transition may generally be made from any class in one grade to the corresponding class in another grade without any special private preparation. This transition can only be effected in the three lower classes of Gymnasia and Real Gymnasia; the same rule holds good with regard to the transfer of the students of gymnasia to the lower classes of Realschulen. Thanks to these arrangements, changes seldom take place; but if the transition is regarded as convenient and desirable, all possible facilities for it are accorded.

High schools do not hold entrance examinations. Universities and higher technical schools admit to full privileges only those students who have obtained the leaving certificate of a gymnasium, or, for some branches of philosophy, that of a Real Gymnasium. The conditions of entrance to lower technical schools (*Fach-loch Schulen*) need not be considered here.

In all these schools provision is made for the assistance of clever and diligent students in poor circumstances. In schools supported by the State 10 per cent. of the total income may be used in remission of fees. Scholarships for poor students are attached to nearly all schools; these are provided partly by the State or Commune and partly out of endowments.

4. It is sufficient here to state that technical instruction is not given in any of the 73 above-mentioned schools. The only technical schools which need be considered here are the agricultural and commercial schools, which are so affiliated to the Real Gymnasia at Döbeln and Zittau that students in their three lower classes receive instruction together. As, however, this system is confined to two small institutions, it is unnecessary to give further details with regard to it, especially as there is no other connexion between these institutions and the Real Gymnasia in question.

5. All teachers in the 73 middle schools must have passed the State examination for teachers. Science teachers in Gymnasia and Realgymnasia must, as a rule, have received a university education and have passed the State examination for teachers in higher schools or for theological students. Distinguished elementary teachers can also receive scientific instruction within certain limits at training colleges and Realschulen. Special teachers for music, writing, gymnastics, and drawing, must at least have passed a satisfactory examination in one or, preferably, in several technical subjects.

Provision is made for the theoretical and practical training of teachers at the university by means of lectures and practical work. Pedagogy is, moreover, one of the subjects of the State examination which teachers are obliged to pass. After passing this examination persons who intend to teach in secondary schools must serve for one year in a certain school without remuneration, under the direction of experienced teachers.

6. The number of poor boys without any special ability who attend secondary schools in Saxony is not large, or at any rate not large enough to cause anxiety. The reason of this is, no doubt, the existence of so many technical schools, and of the 29 modern Realschulen which do not keep their scholars beyond the age at which experience has shown that the transition to practical work may be most easily made.

7. Since 1865 both the elementary and secondary systems of education in Saxony have undergone considerable changes. For the existing regulations with regard to Gymnasia, Realgymnasia, Realschulen, and training colleges—except for some slight changes recently made in the curriculum of gymnasia—*see* "Higher Schools in Saxony," by L. Phillipp. Dresden, Meinhold and Son. Information as to the elementary school

system may be found in "The Law on Elementary Education in the Kingdom of Saxony," Dresden, Meinhold and Son.

8. Private schools of the kind in question have not recently increased in number, but a large increase has taken place in the number of trade and technical schools carried on by private persons. The number of private preparatory schools has increased, and so have the schools which take boys after they leave the public elementary schools. With the exception, however, of the six schools mentioned in Question 1, the number of private schools intended to serve as substitutes for public elementary schools is very small, only 59, as compared with 2,253 public schools, and these are chiefly girls' schools.

KINGDOM OF SAXONY.

REPLIES received from Mr. HENRY FELKIN, of CHEMNITZ, SAXONY.

Before replying to the questions put by the Royal Commissioners, a few remarks are needful to make the answers clear.

In answering them I refer to *Saxony* only, not to Germany in general. Saxony has a very complete system of education of a high order in all its branches, and forms a convenient unit for comparison with, say, London Saxony had a population at the last census in 1890 of 3,502,684, about half a million less than London; comparisons can thus be made as to the education provided for each.

The statistics quoted are taken from the second or last "Report on the "Whole of the Education (General and Technical) Institutions in "Saxony," prepared by order of the Ministers for Education, Home Affairs, Finance, and War, under whose superintendence they are placed. The statistics collected were taken on 2nd December 1889, and comprise every school in Saxony. This most valuable and interesting report contains a picture in figures of the total means and expense of probably the best organised educational system in Germany, and consequently in Europe. Appended to this report is a summary of all the schools, numbers of teachers and pupils, amounts granted by the State and municipalities or communes, amounts raised by school fees, and the total costs of each class of school. I have translated this summary, and append it for the information of the Commissioners and for reference.

Under secondary schools I include the Gymnasien, Real-Gymnasien, Real, higher mercantile, and higher Girls' schools, and also Seminaries or training colleges for elementary school teachers, both male and female. As the Commissioners are doubtless aware, the Gymnasien are classical schools, with Greek, Latin, Mathematics, and some modern languages, and have nine classes or forms; the Real-Gymnasien are modern-side schools, based on modern sciences and languages, but with Latin, and have also nine classes; the Real schools are the same as the Real-Gymnasien, but with no Latin, and have only six classes, equivalent to the six lower classes of the Real-Gymnasien; the higher mercantile schools are also modern-side schools with special mercantile courses, and have three classes. They have also lower divisions for apprentices.

In all these schools a pupil is supposed to pass a class in a year; if not sufficiently forward to do this, he must remain another year. Pupils are never allowed to pass from one class to another in the middle of the school year.* The removal always takes place at Easter, at the beginning of the school year, and is determined by the result of the last annual class examination. *The Standards for each class or form are uniform, i.e.*, all the Gymnasien have the same form standards, Real-Gymnasien the same, and Real schools also.

The Gymnasien and Real-Gymnasien are distinct kinds of schools, with entirely different aims, although the three lowest classes are almost

* NOTE.—All schools throughout Germany, of every class, begin the school year at Easter.

alike, and it must not be supposed they are higher or lower grades of the same kind of school, as is the case with the Real-Gymnasien and Real schools. The Gymnasium is a humanistic classical school with mathematics, and some modern languages. The Real-Gymnasium is based on the "Realien" modern sciences and languages, but with Latin. In Prussia, the Ober-Real school is similar to the Real-Gymnasium, but without Latin. The Real schools have been prevalent in Prussia for many years, but have only spread in Saxony since 1866 for reasons given later on.

The mercantile schools are public, and have mostly grown up within the last 30 years. They were founded by local enterprise, and are under the management of local public bodies. They supply a good modern education leading up to mercantile careers.

In considering Secondary Education and schools in Saxony or Germany, the influence of the so-called one-year volunteer military certificate must never be lost sight of, its effects both on schools and their curriculums, on teachers and pupils alike, being far-reaching and wide-spread. It has, in fact, created one class of schools and re-moulded others. The German military service is for three years. Young men, however, who have attained a certain level of education, are permitted to volunteer to do their service in one year, under certain conditions. This is a great boon to the higher and middle classes, indeed, to anyone who can obtain the concession and afford the expense. An examination must be passed by the volunteer to show whether he has attained the required standard. The secondary schools, especially the Real-Gymnasien and Real schools, laid themselves out to qualify their pupils to pass this examination, and with success. In time, however, certain schools received from the Government the valuable concession, that pupils passing their final public examination with a certain number of marks, were at once admitted to the one year's military service without undergoing any further examination; their final certificates were acknowledged by the military authorities as sufficient.

This concession at once stamps a school possessing it as being of a certain rank or position, for the Minister of Education must first be satisfied as to the sufficiency of its curriculum, and efficiency of its teaching. The final examination, too, takes place in public, by writing and *vivâ voce* in the presence of a Government commissioner, who has to be satisfied as to the efficiency of the successful candidates.

The certificates of the lower second class (Untersecunda) of the Gymnasien or Real-Gymnasien, and of the highest class of the Real schools and of most (not all) of the higher mercantile schools in Saxony, qualify for the one-year volunteer service.

The Gymnasien, Real-Gymnasien, Real, and higher girls' schools are under the Minister for Education, the Mercantile schools are under the Home Minister, and the training colleges under the Minister for Education.

Saxony affords a good example of a small State well supplied with excellent and suitable schools, primary, secondary, technical, leading from one up to another on to the university and the various professions, as well as to mercantile and industrial pursuits, lower and higher. A most important fact bearing on the usefulness of the secondary and technical schools is, that they are located where they are most needed, in the larger centres, so that the pupils can attend them while living at home. The heavy expense, such as that often incurred in England in sending a boy to a "public school," is thus avoided. The fees, too, are low. A boy can get as good a classical education in the Gymnasien at Chemnitz for 6*l.* a year as at Eton or Harrow if his family lives in the town, or as good a modern-side education at the Real-Gymnasium in the same place, also for 6*l.* a year, as at Clifton. The fees for the Real schools vary from about 3*l.* to 6*l.* a year.

The seminaries or colleges for training elementary school teachers, male and female, in Saxony, which also belong to the secondary schools, are considered model institutions of their kind. Their object, as their

name implies, is to train teachers for the public elementary schools. They take pupils in their 15th or 16th year, at the close of the elementary school course, and have, mostly, six classes, taking the students up to their 20th or 21st year. Four of these colleges are private foundations, the rest are State institutions; but all are almost entirely supported by the State. Practising schools are attached to them or at their disposal. It is to the excellent training which the teachers undergo in these seminaries that Saxony owes the high standard of success attained in her elementary schools. These training colleges are almost all boarding colleges.

The Military School at Dresden, called the "Cadetten-Corps," is equivalent to a Real-Gymnasium. I have not included it in the list of secondary schools. It is entirely maintained out of Imperial funds.

1. Many secondary schools are provided by the State, a considerable number by the larger towns, and some by the smaller towns, aided by subventions from the State. A few are old foundations. Local enterprise has also had to do, in the past, with the founding of some of these secondary schools. Schools provided by private enterprise are *very* few, and mostly attended by foreigners.

In Saxony in 1889 there were—

50 public secondary schools, with 13,178 pupils.
32 „ „ (mercantile) „ 3,364 „
and only 8 private schools „ 1,261 „ many of whom were foreigners.

The following figures, taken from the report before named, show the statistics of these schools, their cost, and how much is contributed by the State, the municipalities, and from pupils' fees. From this it will be seen that the secondary schools of Saxony are almost entirely State and municipal, or connected with some public body.

—	Number of Schools.	Teachers.	Pupils.	Total Cost.	State Subvention.	Municipal Subvention.	Fees.	Balance of Expenses made up from various Sources and Foundations.
				£	£	£	£	£
Public Schools, viz., Gymnasien, Real-Gymnasien, Real schools, and higher girls' schools - -	50	890	13,178	197,440	63,931	44,483	66,927	22,099
Mercantile schools - -	32	184	3,364	18,184	435	625	16,223	901
Private schools - -	8	68	1,261	Unknown	None	None	Unknown	
Training colleges for elementary school teachers, male and female - -	20	260	2,487	61,861	52,406*	—	2,564	—

* To the above State subvention must be added 2,588*l.* for pensions granted by the State to teachers, male and female, in secondary schools, or their wives and children.

2. From the foregoing table it will be seen, that in the case of the mercantile schools, they are almost entirely self-supporting, the total cost being nearly met by the fees of the pupils.

In the case of the Gymnasien, the Real-Gymnasien, Real and higher girls' schools, it may be roughly stated that the State provides a trifle less than one-third, the municipalities provide a little less than one-fourth, the pupils' fees provide a trifle more than one-third, and the balance comes from various sources, mostly endowments. The training colleges are almost entirely supported by the State. There seems to be no principle determining the proportion. Each school gets what it can.

3. By having well-organised systems of primary and secondary schools, especially the former, with well-defined and *uniform* standards for each class or form. To make this clear, and show its influence in providing facilities for the passing of scholars from one school to another, as the question inquires, some details must be entered into.

1st. As to the primary or public elementary schools. These are practically uniform all through the country, and consist mostly of eight classes, some few of the "higher citizens schools" having ten. All the children begin their education in them, and pass through them unless removed to a higher school. The eight classes or forms should be got through in eight years, one year in each class. Each class has its prescribed standard, which must be passed by the pupil, or he has to remain a second year, and cannot pass on to the next. These class standards are uniform in Saxony, being somewhat higher in the towns than in the country.

The classes are as follows:—

Normal Age	8th	7th	6th	5th	4th	3rd	2nd	1st Class or Form.
	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	13th	14th Year.

The progress and position in the school of each pupil is annually recorded, with other details as to ability, attendance, diligence, &c., in a tabulated form on his certificate, so that his efficiency and the exact stage he has attained at any time during the whole school course can be seen at a glance. Thus, if a boy leaves Chemnitz, when ten years old, in the middle of his course, and goes to Plauen, his Chemnitz certificate is simply given to the director of the school at the latter place, who at once knows where to place him. The passing of pupils from one primary school to another is thus simple and easy.

2ndly. In secondary schools the principle of the organisation is the same. The class or form standards in all the Gymnasien being alike, the passing of pupils from one Gymnasium to another is simple and easy, and it is the same with the Real-Gymnasien, Real, mercantile, and higher girls' schools.

Further, the passing of pupils from a lower to a higher school takes place:—

a. From primary to secondary schools by producing the certificate of the primary school, and the pupil undergoes also an entrance examination. Pupils who have passed the sixth class of a primary school are qualified to enter the lowest form of a Gymnasium, Real-Gymnasium, or Real school. As a rule they pass the fifth form before entering any of these three schools, and are 10 years old. If a pupil wishes to enter after the beginning of the course, he can be admitted to middle forms if found fit by the director, on undertaking to work up by private tuition any subject in which he may be below the standard of the respective form. Poor but able scholars in the higher classes, recommended by the masters, give such lessons to younger ones and new comers for 1*s.* an hour or less, and thus help to maintain themselves.

Pupils can pass, after going through the full course of a primary school, into one of the seminaries for training teachers, either male or female.

Pupils can also pass from the primary schools into the higher mercantile schools, but have to submit to an entrance examination which is obligatory. Boys, however, who have absolved the full course of a higher citizens' (elementary) school are amply prepared to pass it successfully. Many boys who break down in the middle of the Gymnasien and Real-Gymnasien courses, are deflected into the mercantile schools, and thus finish their education and get the military certificate.

b. From one class of secondary school to another.

In the three lower forms, sexta, quinta, quarta, there is but a slight difference between the curricula of the Gymnasien, the Real-Gymnasien and Real schools, so that passing from one school to another within these forms may easily be done. It also often

occurs that pupils who have attended up to the highest form but one of a Real-Gymnasium are admitted to the same form in a Gymnasium after learning Greek by private coaching, and thus lose only one year. To pass from a Real school (which has neither Latin nor Greek) to a Gymnasium or a Real-Gymnasium is more difficult, and only advisable in the lower forms. Boys from the middle forms of the Gymnasien, Real-Gymnasien, and Real schools can pass into the higher mercantile schools if sufficiently advanced to pass the entrance examination.

c. From secondary schools to the university.

The curriculum of the Gymnasien is such that students who go through its full course and pass the so-called "Abiturienten," or final examination, with a certain number of marks, equal to "satisfactory," can enter at any or all of the four faculties at the university at once. The Gymnasien are the only schools in Saxony that possess this qualification. The certificate of the Real-Gymnasien qualifies for entrance to the philosophy faculty only, to study modern languages and sciences. Students, however, from these schools can enter the other faculties (medicine, law, theology) after having studied Latin and Greek sufficiently to pass the entrance examination.

Pupils from the Real and higher mercantile schools do not generally go to the university, as these schools do not aim at preparing for it. No attempt, therefore, is made to bring them into touch with it.

Students from the Gymnasien and Real-Gymnasien with the certificate of the lower second form, as well as those who have obtained the final certificate of the Real schools, can enter the higher technical schools, but pupils wishing to enter the Royal Polytechnic at Dresden must have passed the full course of either the one or other of the two first named with credit.

The true preparatory schools for the university in Saxony are the Gymnasien. The Real schools and Real-Gymnasien, especially the latter, on the other hand prepare for the higher technical schools. The higher mercantile schools lead to no higher schools, but prepare simply for a mercantile or industrial career.

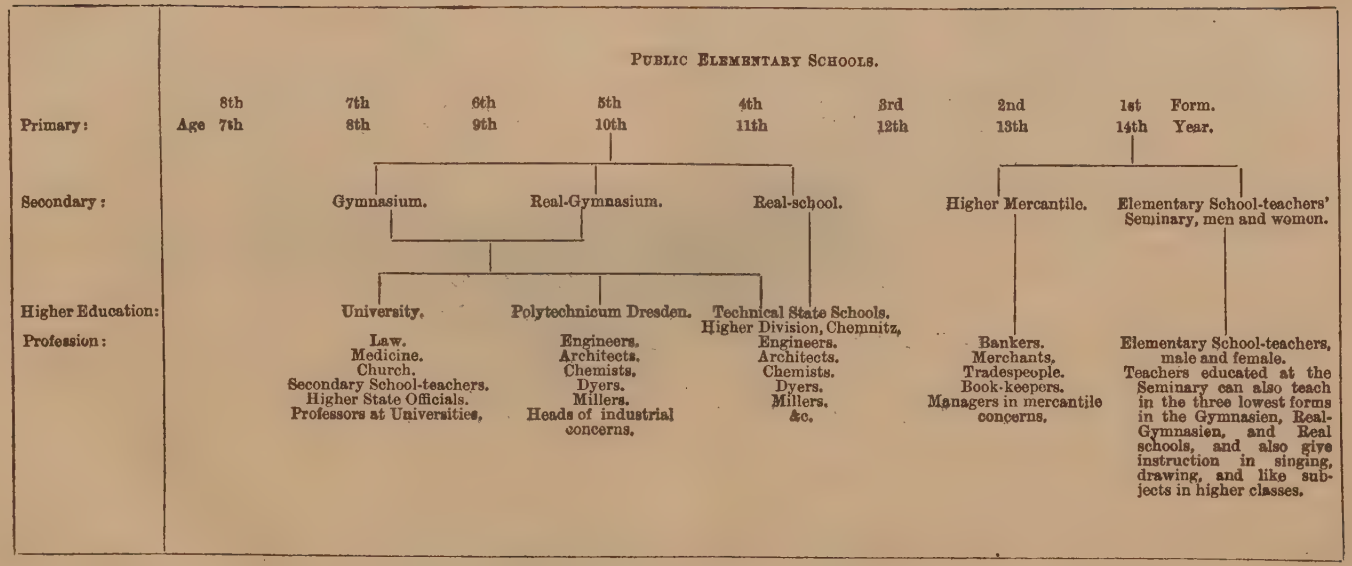
In Prussia, as before mentioned, Real schools have existed for many years, but in Saxony before 1866 there were but six Real schools, since raised to Real-Gymnasien. They were introduced in greater numbers after the war of 1866, when Saxony entered the North German Confederation and became subject to the Prussian military system, partly to enable young men to obtain the one-year military certificate, partly to supply a real want for a sound education on modern lines, and also to relieve the Real-Gymnasien. They spread rapidly, and are largely attended by less gifted boys from the upper middle classes, by boys from the lower middle classes and upper working classes, by the sons of elementary school teachers, and lower State and municipal officials.

On the next page, I give a plan showing the inter-relation of the schools in Saxony, and how they lead down from one to another and finally to the various professions and pursuits.

As to aid to poor scholars of promise. The greatest aid lies in the extreme lowness of the fees in all secondary schools except the mercantile. The Gymnasien and Real-Gymnasien fees are 6*l*. a year, those of the Real schools from 3*l*. to 6*l*., those of the higher mercantile schools which have to be self-supporting are higher.

Aid is given, however, by partial or total remission of the fees, by the committee of management or the Minister of Education. Further, by scholarships of 30*s*. to 5*l*. annually out of foundations, but only to pupils in the middle and upper forms. Assistance is also obtained by poorer pupils in the higher forms, by giving private lessons to younger ones in the lower forms as before mentioned.

PLAN showing INTER-RELATION of SCHOOLS in SAXONY.



4. What is the proper relation?

General education must come first as the basis, and technical education be built up thereon. The first care must be that the foundations are good and finished as far as is needful, so that the whole energies of teachers and pupils may be devoted to the superstructure. Technical education may be defined as education theoretical and practical, in the sciences and arts underlying the various industries. It is not the mere learning of singing or drawing or Slöyd, or even joinering in adjunct classes in a primary school. The first condition, therefore, is a highly developed system of primary and of secondary schools, in which a general education of a high character is brought to a close. The second condition is, that general and technical education are strictly separated.

This is the case in Saxony.

Pupils enter the lower technical schools when 14 to 16 years of age, after leaving the elementary or Real schools; they enter the higher technical from 16 to 18 or 19 from the Real schools, Real-Gymnasien, or even the Gymnasien, after having finished their general education and obtained the one-year military certificate. But even at the higher technical schools, general education is not entirely dropped, as there are courses at some in modern languages, history, and geography, and in all there is an obligatory course of German literature and composition. The pupils thus do not enter till their general education is finished, practically they are free to devote all their time and energies to their technical education.

The Real-Gymnasien is the school which is preparatory to, and leads up to, the higher technical schools. The Real school prepares best for the lower technical schools, but the bulk of pupils who enter the latter come from the elementary schools.

5. But little provision has been made in Saxony, or in other parts of Germany, as far as I know. Teachers in the Gymnasien, Real-Gymnasien, and Real schools must have had three years at a university and passed an examination in most of those branches in which they intend to teach There are lectures on pedagogy at the various universities, and at the examination for secondary school teachers questions on pedagogy are put and a trial lesson must be given. At Jena, where Professor Dr. Rein lectures on pedagogy, a practising school is attached to the university.

Before getting a permanent situation as teacher, a candidate must pass a trial year in a secondary school, where he has to give instruction in various subjects under the superintendence of an older master, or the headmaster himself.

This meagre preparation is deemed *insufficient*, while that of the teachers for elementary schools, male and female, is most excellent, and the training colleges for them are considered model institutions of their kind.

6. Yes, such a tendency undoubtedly exists, but, nevertheless many such pupils find employment in subordinate situations in business concerns, in the post and telegraph services, in the many lower branches of State and municipal administration, and in State railway service.

The cause is to be found in the desire and ambition of many parents to raise their children in the social scale, and fit them for something better than manual or mechanical pursuits. Another strong motive is to obtain the one-year military certificate. To combat this tendency it is proposed, but not yet carried out, to reduce the term of military service from three to two years; and further, to raise the standards of the annual class examinations in the secondary schools, so as to get rid of such unsatisfactory pupils in the lower classes in the interest of the schools themselves.

7. There has been no material change since 1865 in the training of teachers for secondary schools; but, as before hinted, the opinion is

gaining ground, that such teachers require more perfect systematic training, both theoretical and practical, that is, in pedagogy and psychology as well as in the art of teaching, similar to that which teachers in primary schools undergo, and which is considered most excellent.

Nor has any change taken place in the relation of the State to the teacher, or in the relation of Primary to Secondary Education.

There has, however, been a considerable increase in the number of technical schools of the middle and lower grades for the various handicrafts, for the smaller industries, and auxiliary trades, as well as for the lower branches of the main industries. These schools, originated by local trade iniative, have spread to such an extent, that each little local industry in the small towns and villages has its technical evening classes, in which apprentices and young people can gain instruction, theoretical and practical, in the elements of their industry or profession. The State has nursed these schools with great care, and assisted them with small subventions.

There has, further, been one material change or rather development in Saxony in the secondary school system since 1865. This was the introduction, after the war of 1866 as before mentioned, of the Real schools of the Prussian type, and for the reasons stated. There are now 21 such in Saxony, they supply an undoubted deficiency, are beneficial, and much appreciated. I have classed them for convenience sake with secondary schools, but they really form an intermediate class between primary and secondary. The education given in them is of such an excellent character and high standard, that in England they would rank as secondary schools. They are largely attended by children from the lower, middle, and higher working classes, by the children of elementary school teachers, and of the lower officials in State and municipal service.

The "Fortbildungs," or continuation schools, are also an entirely new departure. They were started in Saxony some 10 years ago, and have not yet spread in any degree to the other German States. They are, of course, not secondary schools, although they follow on at the end of the elementary school course, their object being rather to consolidate and confirm what has been attained than carry on the education further; but they are of two kinds, viz., the ordinary and the "Gewerbliche Fortbildungs" or technical continuation schools. A pupil by attending the latter is absolved from the former. These technical continuation schools, however, seek to train and teach their pupils in other subjects besides those they had before, some of which are continued.

8. None. Private schools in Saxony are mostly for the higher classes and foreigners.* The public schools, both primary and secondary, are so excellent and the fees so low, that all classes send their children to be educated in them. Private adventure schools have been crushed out entirely.

Chemnitz,
20th September 1894.

HENRY M. FELKIN.

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* NOTE.—The statistics of them are given in the table appended.

OFFICIAL REPORT TAKEN IN DECEMBER 1889.

SUMMARY of all SCHOOLS in SAXONY.

	Name of School.	Number of Schools.	Number of Masters.	Number of Students.	Total Expenditure in £.	State Subventions in £.	Municipal Subventions in £.	School Fees in £.
	A. The University of Leipzig	1	182	3,453	79,900	51,887	—	—
	The Royal Polytechnicum at Dresden	1	44	380	15,670	14,798	—	857
	The Veterinary High School at Dresden	1	13	134	4,553	3,330	—	—
	The Mining Academy at Freiberg	1	21	142	5,970	5,200	—	439
	The Forestry Academy at Tharandt	1	12	108	4,004	2,888	—	1,002
Secondary Schools.	B. Gymnasien	17	304	5,561	110,661	44,891	15,105	34,254
	Real-Gymnasien	10	219	3,178	40,250	8,839	15,286	15,611
	Real schools	21	238	3,629	38,564	10,200	11,716	11,841
	Higher girls' schools	2	39	810	7,964	—	2,364	5,219
	Private schools for advanced education, boys	7	60	1,220	—	—	—	—
	Private schools for advanced education, girls	1	8	41	—	—	—	—
	Mercantile schools	32	184	3,364	18,184	435	625	16,223
	C. Seminaries for training elementary school teachers (men and women)	19	257	2,475	56,232	51,893	—	2,449
	Gymnastic Teachers' Institute at Dresden	1	3	1,405	629	513	—	115
	D. Cadet-corps at Dresden	1	13	158	—	—	—	—
	Sub-officers' school at Marienberg	1	18	396	—	—	—	—
	School for soldiers' sons at Kleinstruppen, Garrison Schools at Dresden, and Fort Königstein	3	10	233	—	—	—	—
	E. Institutes for plastic art and art industries	4	70	680	15,163	13,931	—	1,024
	Institutes for music and the theatre	7	163	1,804	—	—	—	—
	The Royal Stenographie Institute at Dresden	1	9	804	1,462	1,462	—	—
	F. The Royal School of Medicine for Women at Dresden	1	5	72	7,320	4,628	—	2,690
	G. Technical State schools at Chemnitz	1	46	777	9,760	7,400	—	2,125
	Municipal Industrial School at Leipzig	1	28	732	2,792	—	2,121	671
	Technical school at Mittweida	1	22	660	—	—	—	—
	Building schools	5	40	603	4,707	4,042	—	649
	Weaving, hosiery, and lace schools	29	163	2,072	5,880	1,790	811	1,623

[OVER.

Name of School.	Number of Schools.	Number of Masters.	Number of Students.	Total Expenditure in £.	State Subventions in £.	Municipal Subventions in £.	School Fees in £.
				£	£	£	£
Other industrial technical schools	36	138	2,553	7,645	2,835	—	2,307
Navigation schools	6	13	92	112	98	—	14
Instruction courses for stokers and machinists	3	—	151	—	—	—	—
Miners' schools	2	8	110	905	533	327	—
H. Industrial continuation schools	28	316	7,912	5,007	960	525	2,182
J. Industrial institutes for women and girls	9	81	1,081	3,627	475	185	2,026
K. Farming and gardening schools	9	76	527	4,271	2,280	95	1,119
M. Board schools. Public primary schools	2,205	10,102	654,732	990,106	222,336	477,241	253,879
Deaf and dumb institutes	2	54	397				
Blind institutes and preparatory schools	4	31	133	—	—	—	—
State institutes	5	30	526	—	—	—	—
Concessioned private and endowed schools	90	307	6,732	—	—	—	—
Home education	—	265	952	—	—	—	—
Penal and reformatory institutes	11	38	2,120	—	—	—	—
N. Manual skill, hand lace, and trimming schools	29	32	1,357	1,028	687	128	135
Strawplaiting schools	4	6	240	139	105	34	—
Schools for domestic industries of Saxon Suity	11	9	190	175	160	15	—
Pension for masters of higher institutes, their widows and orphans	—	—	—	9,588	6,580	—	—

Saxe-Weimar.

(*Translation.*)

Answers of the Cultus Ministerium of the Grand Duchy of Saxe-Weimer-Eisenach to the Questions of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education.

1. It may be assumed that by "Secondary Schools" are meant those schools which are called in North Germany "Higher Schools" (*höhere Lehranstalten*), in South Germany and Austria "Middle Schools" (*Mittelschulen*), viz., Classical *Gymnasien* and *Realgymnasien*, Upper *Realschulen* and *Realschulen*, as well as those schools designated *Progymnasien* and *Prorealgymnasien*, which proceed on the same lines as the *Gymnasien* and *Realgymnasien*, but include the lower and middle classes only.

[Schools devoted exclusively to training pupils for definite employments or trades (*e.g., Baugewerken- und Gewerbeschulen*) and commercial schools, are omitted from this return.]

The following higher schools are in existence in the Grand Duchy of Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach:—

1. The Grand Ducal *Gymnasien* at Weimar and Eisenach.
2. The Grand Ducal *Gymnasium* at Jena, and the Grand Ducal *Realgymnasium* at Eisenach.
3. The Municipal *Realgymnasium* at Weimar.
4. The Grand Ducal *Realschulen* in Apolda and Neustadt an der Orla.
5. The private boarding schools of Herren Pfeiffer and Stoy at Jena, which are arranged on the same principle as *Realschulen*.

The schools under (1) are entirely supported by the State. Those under (2) and (4) receive a moderate subsidy from the corporations of the respective towns. In the case of (3), three-fifths of the expenses are borne by the corporation and two-fifths by the State, while the schools mentioned under (5) receive no assistance whatever from public sources.

2. In the State schools under (1) and (2) the annual fee is 80 marks, but there is an additional fee of 64 marks (making 144 marks in all) in the case of those pupils whose parents pay no taxes in the Grand Duchy.

For pupils of the *Realgymnasium* at Weimar, the following annual fees are payable:—

(*a.*) 72 marks, if the parents pay taxes in the Grand Duchy, as well as rates in the town of Weimar.

(*b.*) 90 marks, if the parents pay one only of the above.

(*c.*) 120 marks, if the parents pay neither the one nor the other.

In the case of the *Realschulen* (4) the school fees are 72 marks per annum.

3.—(*a.*) Pupils who pass from the elementary schools into the higher schools usually do so after completing the fourth year's course at the former. In the larger towns there are preparatory schools (*Vorschulen*), in which the classes are smaller; in these it is found possible for pupils to reach the required standard in three years.

Children are admitted into the elementary schools at six years of age, and the entrance into a higher school accordingly takes place at nine or ten.

If a scholar wishes to pass from an upper class of an elementary school into an upper class of a higher school, a special preparation in foreign languages is necessary, as these are not taught in elementary schools.

(*b.*) The courses of work in the various classes are arranged to extend over one year, and thus a pupil usually remains one year in each class, promotion from one class to the next taking place annually at Easter.

Those pupils, however, who at the end of a year have not reached the required standard of proficiency, are not promoted, but are obliged to repeat the year's work in the same class; if at the end of the second year they are still unfit for promotion, they must leave the school.

(*c.*) Entrance to a university course of study is, as a rule, permitted to those only who have passed the leaving examination at a Classical *Gymnasium*. Candidates who have passed the leaving examination at a *Realgymnasium* are, however, admitted to the study of mathematics, natural science, and modern languages, but *not* to the study of theology, of law, or of medicine. If former pupils of a *Realgymnasium* wish to pursue any one of the last-mentioned courses of study, they must first pass a supplementary examination in Latin and Greek at a Classical *Gymnasium*.

Further particulars may be found in the accompanying Regulations for the Examination of Higher Schools (*Prüfungsordnung für die höhere Lehranstalten*), which correspond in all essentials with the Prussian Regulations.

4. The following tables show the number of hours per week devoted at present to the various subjects.

I. *Gymnasien.*

Classes	IA.	IB.	IIA.	IIB.	IIIA.	IIIB.	IV.	V.	VI.
Religious knowledge	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3
German	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	3	3
Latin	7	7	7	8	8	8	9	9	9
Greek	6	6	7	7	7	7	—	—	—
French	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	—	—
History and geography	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	2
Mathematics	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	3
Natural history	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	2	2
Physics	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	—	—
Writing	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	2
Drawing	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	2
Singing	In divisions, 1 to 2 hours per week.								
Gymnastics	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Total (singing not included)	31	31	32	32	32	32	31	30	28

Additional Voluntary Lessons.

Classes.	IA.	IB.	IIA.
English	2	2	—
Hebrew	2	2	2

II. *Realgymnasien.*

Classes	IA.	IB.	IIA.	IIB.	IIIA.	IIIB.	IV.	V.	VI.
Religious knowledge	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3
German	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Latin	5	5	5	5	5	5	6	9	9
French	4	4	4	4	5	5	7	—	—
English	3	3	3	3	4	4	—	—	—
History	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	—
Geography	—	—	1	1	2	2	2	2	2
Mathematics	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	5
Natural history	—	—	—	2	2	2	2	2	2
Physics	3	3	3	3	—	—	—	—	—
Chemistry	2	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—
Drawing	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Writing	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	2
Gymnastics	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Total (exclusive of 1–2 hours singing per week)	34	34	34	34	34	34	33	30	30

III. *Realschulen.*

Classes -	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.
Religious knowledge - -	2	2	2	2	2	3
German - - - -	3	3	3	4	4	4
French - - - -	5	5	6	3	3	3
English - - - -	4	4	5	—	—	—
History and geography -	4	4	4	4	3	3
Mathematics - - -	5	5	5	5	5	4
Natural history - -	—	2	3	3	3	2
Physics and Chemistry - -	5	3	—	—	—	—
Drawing - - - -	2	2	2	2	2	2
Writing - - - -	—	—	—	2	3	3
Gymnastics - - -	2	2	2	2	2	2
Total (exclusive of 1-2 hours singing per week) -	32	32	32	32	32	31

5. The answer to this question is contained in the accompanying copy of the Regulations for the Examination of Teachers for Higher Schools in the Saxe-Ernest States (*Ordnung der Prüfung für das Lehramt an höheren Schulen in den Sachsen-Ernestinischen Staaten*), November 1st, 1889, which are essentially the same as the Prussian Regulations.

Candidates who, by passing the above examination, have shown the *intellectual* qualifications required of teachers in higher schools, must, before engaging in work in such schools, go through a two years' course of *practical* training. Detailed information in regard to the method and extent of this training may be found in the accompanying Regulations for the practical training of Teachers for Higher Schools (*Ordnung der praktischen Ausbildung der Kandidaten für das Lehramt an höheren Schulen*), April 17th, 1891.

6. It is indisputable that during the last two decades there has been a great influx of pupils into *Gymnasien* and *Realgymnasien, i.e.*, those institutions which lead on to professional callings (*höhere Berufsarten*). The majority of the pupils who succeeded in advancing to the highest class, and in passing the leaving examination (*Reifeprüfung*), continued their studies at a university or at a technical college (*technische Hochschule*). A not inconsiderable per-centage of less talented scholars were unable to keep pace with the requirements of the school, and proceeded no farther than the middle (and in some cases even the lower) classes. These pupils, it must be acknowledged, had often become unsettled and dissatisfied, and were unwilling to devote themselves to manual labour. Official warnings and representations at the time of their admission had often but little effect. At present, however, there are signs of a reaction, as, in the first place, the overcrowded condition of the professional callings is becoming generally recognised; and, in the second, the limitation of compulsory military service to two years has lessened the inducement to strive for the school-certificate, which entitles the holder to the privilege of serving one year only.

For an ordinary business career, even more than the absolutely necessary preparation is afforded by the *Realschulen*.

7. Since the year 1865 the following have been the only changes in the regulations effecting *Gymnasien* and *Realgymnasien*.

In 1883 and 1893 steps were taken to diminish the time devoted to Latin and Greek in the *Gymnasien* in favour of further instruction in Natural Science, French, and English, and also in German: while in 1884 the

amount of instruction in Latin in the *Realgymnasien* was increased at the expense of the time given to other branches of study.

The present organisation of the *Reaschulen* dates in all essential points from the seventies.

The recognised need for greater *practical* preparation for the work of teaching in higher schools resulted in 1891 in the introduction of a compulsory collegiate year (*Seminarjahr*). [Compare§ 3 of the Regulations for the practical training of Teachers for Higher Schools (*Ordnung der praktischen Ausbildung der Kandidaten für das Lehramt an höheren Schulen*).]

The only change in the relations between the teachers and the State or town authorities has been a not inconsiderable increase in the salaries of the teachers.

8. The answer to this question is simply "No."

Weimar, August 21, 1894.

For the Chief of the Department,
Dr. Kuhn.

Saxe-Weimar.

(*Translation.*)

Replies received from Dr. Rein, Professor of Pedagogy, Jena.

1. By far the greater number of secondary schools in Saxe-Weimar are State schools; some belong to municipalities, and a few are private enterprises. (*See* Education Statistics in Weimar, compiled by the Minister of Education.)

2. *See* Education Statistics.

3. The course of instruction in all schools consists in a three years' elementary course for children from six to nine years of age. Subsequent education is carried on in (1) grammar schools (*Gymnasien*); (2) technical institutes (*Realgymnasien*); (3) technical schools (*Realschulen*).

In grammar schools the course of study lasts nine years and includes Latin, Greek, French, and English.

In technical institutes the nine years' course includes Latin, French, and English.

In technical schools the course only lasts six years, and no dead languages are taught.

Higher technical schools with a nine years' course have not been established in Saxe-Weimar. Transition from one kind of school to another is not easy, and only takes place in the lower classes. Only the grammar schools and technical institutes prepare for the universities. (*See* Rein. am ende der Schulreform? Langensalza 1893). Poor students are assisted by remission of fees and bursaries (*stipendien*).

4. With regard to this the schools of Weimar act upon the principle of giving a thorough all-round education first and then supplementing it with technical instruction. (*See* Rein. "Outlines of Pedagogics;" Swan, Sonnenschein, p. 29.)

5. A school for the theoretical and practical training of teachers has been connected with the university of Jena since 1843. Persons who intend to become teachers in secondary schools must attend this institution for one year, and must do both theoretical and practical work. (*See* "Aus dem Pädagog Universitäts-Seminar zu Jena." Part 5, Langensalza.)

Candidates cannot enter the training school until they have passed the State examination in philology, &c. They then enter upon a course of training, both theoretical and practical, which lasts for two years.

It is desirable that the teachers' training school should be always connected with the university. (*See* Rein. "Zeitschrift für Philosophie u. Pädagogik," Part 2, *et seq.* 1894.)

6. The practical introduction of manual instruction into the schools of Weimar is only a question of time, the principle has been already agreed upon. A workshop in which teachers may qualify themselves is now about to be erected at Jena.

7. Elementary education in Weimar is under the law of 1874. Secondary and higher education is governed by the Prussian decrees of 1882 and 1892. (*See* Rein. Schulreform.)

8. No increase has taken place in the number of private schools, nor can there be any increase while the State schools do their duty. Private schools cannot compete with the sound and liberal education given in State schools.

WÜRTEMBERG.

(*Translation.*)

REPLIES received through the FOREIGN OFFICE.

1. In the kingdom of Würtemberg the "middle schools" (secondary schools), which prepare for the university and the technical school are called "*Gelehrten*" and "*Realschulen.*"

At the present time there exist 92 "*Gelehrtenschulen,*" including the Realgymnasia and the Real-Lyceums, of which 22 have upper forms (for pupils from 14 to 18 years of age). Of the Realschulen there are 79, of which 14 are also arranged for upper forms.

Of these educational institutions only 11 are wholly or partially supported by the State. The remainder are communal institutions based on principles For their maintenance the State makes grants which are regulated according to the place and state of the finances in the respective communities, and vary from 20 per cent. to 33 per cent. of the total expenditure of the single schools.

Private Schools, giving an education corresponding to that of the secondary schools, have always formed a rare exception in Würtemberg. At present there is but one such private school, and that is at Stuttgart.

2. The school fees vary from 4 to 63 marks a year, and are fixed with the sanction of the school authorities, by whom local conditions are taken into consideration. In the case of indigent pupils the fees may be wholly or partially remitted.

The proportion of the income from the school fees to the total expenditure of the single schools varies very considerably, according as the fees are reckoned at a higher or lower rate. The incomes from the scholars' fees in the various places amount to about 4 per cent. to 20 per cent. of the total school expenditure.

3. (*a.*) The scholars of the secondary schools are received when they have attained their eighth or ninth year, after having, for at least two years, attended either a national school (Volkschule) or an elementary school which prepares especially for the secondary schools. (*b.*) The standard of the several classes of the secondary schools is fixed by the time-tables, which are uniformly regulated by the school authorities. Those pupils of an institute who desire to be moved into a higher class are obliged to show by an examination that they are equal to the work of their class. (*c.*) At the university, and the technical school, only those pupils are admitted as ordinary students who have passed the "leaving examination" (Maturitäts prüfung). This examination is held, according to fixed regulations, every year at the various educational institutions (Gymnasien and Realanstalten) which have 10 classes, and is entered upon by pupils after having passed through the highest class.

4. With the exception of geometrical and freehand drawing, the time-tables of the "Gelehrten" and "Realschulen" include no subjects of technical instruction. In several towns of the kingdom there are schools

for manual training, where the pupils may attend the instruction voluntarily.

5. The teachers of the "Gelehrten" schools finish their education as a rule at the university, those of the "Realschulen" at the university, and the technical school. At the end of their studies they are required to pass a teachers' Government examination.

6. The tendency of a large number of scholars to quit secondary schools with a dislike or unfitness for manual labour has not been generally remarked in Würtemberg.

The Realschulen are principally those educational institutions whose pupils, so far as they are not intended for higher technical studies, devote themselves in after life to commerce or trade.

7. No material change in the organisation of the Gelehrten and Realschulen has taken place since 1865. The regulations for the training of teachers have also remained the same.

In the large towns are so-called elementary schools, which especially prepare for the secondary schools (*see* 3 *a.*). The instruction in these schools is limited to the elementary subjects of the national school (Volksschule). As the elementary schools work under more favourable conditions than the national schools, they afford their pupils, as a rule, a better primary education than is possible at the national schools.

8. This question has already been answered in No. I., Part 4.

WÜRTEMBERG.

(*Translation.*)

REPLIES received from DR. J. VON DIEFENBACH, Stuttgart.

The statistical Report on Education, published by the Department of Religion and Education at Stuttgart, gives accurate information with regard to the most recent developments of education in the kingdom of Würtemberg.

1. All secondary schools in Würtemberg (Gymnasia, Lyceums, Upper and Lower Realschulen and Realgymnasia), are supported by the State or the communal authorities out of public money. The school at Cornthal is the only exception.

2. The fees charged in these schools are very various. In large towns they are higher than in country places, and more is charged in the upper forms than in the lower.

There is no definite principle as to the proportion of school expenses which ought to be covered by school fees, but it may be assumed that in general from 10 to 30 per cent. of the cost of education is covered by fees.

3. (*a.*) Examinations which entitle children to pass from the elementary to the higher schools take place annually.

(*b.*) Transition from one class to another is also effected by examination.

(*c.*) There is also a matriculation examination, which qualifies students to pass from secondary schools to the universities and higher technical schools.

Numerous endowments provide assistance for poor students. Some of these are partly confined to members of certain families, while others are open to all competent students. In many schools the fees are remitted to poor scholars, and aid is also afforded them from State or communal funds.

4. Realschulen and Realgymnasia are intended to provide a general scientific education and to prepare their scholars for special technical studies. Mathematics, drawing, and natural science take a more prominent place in their curriculum than Latin and Greek.

5. The teachers in higher schools are educated partly at technical high schools and partly at the universities. Undergraduates are given

opportunities for practical teaching in Realschulen or Gymnasia, and when their university career is over they are employed as assistant masters.

6. The regulation which holds good throughout the German empire, that those who, at a certain age, have reached a certain standard of education, shall be exempted from one or two years' military service, causes the number of young men who remain at school up to 16 or 18 years of age, to be larger than in other countries. The consequence is that many at this advanced age cannot adapt themselves to practical employments, and therefore seek for official and clerical positions. The dignity of manual labour is under-rated, and we have at the present time a superfluity of so-called better educated men who have never done any practical work, and a scarcity of good capable working men. Social distinctions have been introduced among the working classes, and these are partly responsible for the existence of the social democratic party, which is chiefly recruited from the ranks of educated men who have never learnt to work.

The period of military service for private soldiers has thus been reduced from three to two years with a view to making conditions more equal all round. Many persons are opposed to any reduction of military service for the better educated classes.

7. No fundamental alteration has taken place in the system of secondary education since 1865, and none certainly in the education of teachers. Teachers are seeking to obtain higher salaries and compensation for pensions.

8. As all secondary education is provided by the State or the communal authorities, private enterprise cannot flourish in the field of education.

J. VON DIEFENBACH.

Stuttgart, July 18, 1894.

HOLLAND.

REPLIES received from the MINISTER OF THE INTERIOR, The Hague.

1 and 8. Only a single private secondary school exists at the present time in Holland, and in this no technical instruction is given. This is the lower division of the episcopal seminary of Roerinond, a Roman Catholic higher middle school for boys (*hoogere Burgerschool*).

2. According to Art. 37 of the law of May 2nd, 1863 (State Papers, No. 50), the fees in lower middle day and evening schools may not exceed 12 francs, and in a State higher middle school they may not exceed 60 francs. In communal schools the school fee is fixed by the communal council.

3. Young persons who wish to be admitted to secondary schools, must show by examination that they have had a good elementary education, and are thus able to receive secondary education.

Pupils in secondary schools are not promoted unless they show that they are ready to profit by such promotion. Secondary education in Holland does not prepare for the universities. According to Art. 13 of the law of April 28th, 1876 (State Papers, No. 102), on higher education, persons in possession of a certificate stating that they have satisfactorily passed the leaving examination of a higher middle school with five classes, are, on entering the university, excused examination in the subjects mentioned in their certificate. State Paper No. 85, sent herewith, shows the conditions under which clever boys in poor circumstances are admitted free of charge to the State higher middle schools.

4. No technical instruction is given in the higher middle schools of Holland. It is provided in the trade schools, which have been established by private individuals in different communes. General as well as purely technical education is given in these institutions.

5. There are no training colleges for secondary teachers in Holland. The teaching staff of higher middle schools always includes persons who have taken a doctor's degree in classics, science, law, or literature, and this degree confers the right to teach in secondary schools.

6. No official information is available on this subject.

7. The Dutch system of secondary education has undergone no changes since 1865.

I also have the pleasure to send you a valuable work by Dr. van Loos, director of the higher town school of Leiden, which will give you fuller information as to the organisation of our secondary education. All the particulars with regard to schools, instruction, and finance, desired by your Commission, will be found in it.

VAN HOUTEN,
Minister of the Interior.

SPAIN.

MEMORANDUM on EDUCATION in SPAIN. Received through the FOREIGN OFFICE.

In Spain education is divided into three principal courses, primary, secondary, and superior.

The system is based on a law passed in 1857 in which modifications were introduced in 1881 but which has never been very thoroughly carried out, the principle of compulsory attendance never having been insisted on. There is a Director-General of Public Instruction, who is under the Minister of Fomento, a department which includes Public Works.

According to statistics published in 1888 there were in the 49 provinces of Spain 29,828 public elementary schools for boys and girls. There were, moreover, at that time 64 Protestant schools with a total of 3,396 scholars.

The following information relative to the expenditure on public instruction is taken from the budget of 1893–94.

	Pesetas.	£
Elementary { Educational staff	1,068,118	42,724
Elementary { School buildings, &c.	454,550	18,182
Secondary or middle class { Educational staff	3,327,018	133,080
Secondary or middle class { School buildings, &c.	384,250	15,370
Superior { Educational staff	3,052.132	122,058
Superior { School buildings, &c.	383,075	15,323
Professional and special schools	248,866	9,954
Fine arts	681,067	27,242
Archives, libraries, and museums	873,685	34,947
Scientific, artistic, and literary institutions	333,160	13,326
General expenses	239,600	9,584
	11,045,521	441,817

The decree which has just come into force does not affect Primary Education, which, therefore, remains on the following basis:—

Primary Education is divided into three degrees or classes.

1st Infants from 3 to 6 years.
2nd Elementary, 6 to 8 years.
3rd Superior, 8 to 10 years.

The following is a list of the subjects taught in each division, together with the fees payable :—

1st class.—Alphabet, numeration, catechism, rudimentary arithmetic.
Ten pesetas each child per month.

2nd class.—Grammar, arithmetic (principal rules), reading and writing, catechism
Twelve pesetas 50 centimes each child per month.

3rd class.—Grammar, arithmetic, elementary geography, scripture history, reading, writing, elements of Spanish history.
Fifteen pesetas each child per month.

A large number of the schools for primary instruction are entirely private undertakings, and attendance is in no way compulsory.

The hours of instruction are from 9 till 12, and from 2 till 5.

There is a half holiday on Thursdays, provided there is no fête day during the week.

Secondary Education, the subject of the present reforms, will be dealt with at greater length.

It need only be here stated that the Spanish institutes correspond to the French lycées which have been taken as a model. A large number of schools combine the instruction of the first and second education, they are mostly for day scholars, but some are of a more important description and are independent of those of the Jesuits, who throughout all Spain have the education of the upper classes, the Escolapios carried on by the religious order of St. Joseph of Catatrava, the Augustinians, who have a school in the Escurial.

All these schools prepare boys for examinations in the institute which take place in June and September.

The university education is carried on in 10 universities. They are attended solely for the purpose of obtaining a degree, either that of a licenciado, or a doctorado, which are indispensable to enable persons to practice as lawyers, physicians, apothecaries, and, of course, a very large number of the higher classes take the degree without any intention of practising.

The five faculties are those of law, pharmacy, medicine, philosophy, and letters.

It is, however, with regard to Secondary Education that the recent decree has been issued. Education in the institutes, of which there must be at least one in each province supported by municipal funds, resembles that at the universities. The pupils need not attend the lectures, but they must pass the examinations; this they are enabled to do by means of the system of programmes, which will be described. There are, moreover, in Spain 356 colleges incorporated with the institute, specially authorised to prepare boys for the official examinations, but this does not prevent boys being sent up from other schools, or from being prepared by home education.

The reasons which have led to the issue of the decree are set forth in an extensive preface, the gist of which is that, as the system laid down in 1857 is no longer adequate for the requirements of the present day, it has been found necessary to reform it.

With the object of making it adequate, the educational course has in the first place been divided into two parts, styled general studies, and preparatory studies; the former to take a four years' course for boys of from 10 to 14. The preparatory studies, occupying two years, *i.e.*, from 14 to 16, being intended as a preparation for those intending to take the degree of Bachelor, which is indispensable for those going to the university.

The reforms are intended to give a fair share to elementary classics, and also to modern studies; more encouragement would, it is stated, be given to physical education, if it were financially within the power of the Minister.

In order to remedy these evils the Government propose to grant a certain amount of initiative power within the scope conferred by the "ley de los claustros" (law relating to councils of management) for the reform of the interior arrangements of the institutes. With this object a body of assistant professors will be found to assist the teaching body by sharing the actual work.

It is hoped that funds will be found in the next estimates to enable the Minister to develope these plans.

The decree itself is divided into three main divisions:—

1. The plan of studies.
2. The organisation of the institutes.
3. The regulations of education.

The plan of studies in Secondary Education, as has been already stated, are divided into two periods, general and preparatory.

The curriculum appears to be a somewhat ambitious one, but it must be remembered that the education extends over six years, and that the youths develope more prematurely than in northern climates. A full analysis would involve a translation of the article relating to it in the enclosed decree, and can, of course, be provided if necessary, but its cope is indicated by the subjects of the professorships.

The teaching establishment consists of professors (catedraticos), special professors, assistant professors.

The catedraticos are appointed either by election or seniority. They are to be 10 in number for each institute. Five for arts and moral sciences, five for physical natural sciences, as follows:—

One for the elements of Latin, lexicographia, hispano-latin grammar, and advanced Latin.

One for political and physical geography, and the two courses of history

One for elemental psychology, the principles of logic, ethics, and philosophy.

One for an elementary course of literary precepts, previously called rhetoric and poetry, æsthetics and art, history of literature, and elements of Greek.

One for ordinary law, anthropology and psychology, sociology, and ethical sciences.

One for the three elementary courses of mathematics.

One for the two courses of physics and elementary chemistry and for the physics, of the preparatory studies, human physiology, natural history, botany, and zoology.

One for the two courses of advanced mathematics, astronomical, and physical geography.

One for chemistry, mineralogy, and geology, agriculture, and elements of the principal industries.

Each professor gives two lectures either every day or on alternate days without further remuneration than his salary.

If he takes another lecture on alternate days he will receive an additional 530 pesetas, in addition to his ordinary salary, which is 3,000 pesetas, but he may not accumulate more than two.

Of assistant professors there are six, two being on the regular staff, four supernumerary, whose services are honorary.

There are, moreover, four special professors, for French, drawing, caligraphy, and gymnastics.

The executive council (claustro) is composed of all the professors, not including the assistant ones, and they meet at intervals to make any regulations which may be necessary.

The age for admission is fixed at 10 years, and an entrance examination is held on the subjects taught in the upper course of primary instruction.

A matriculation fee is paid except in the case of those who have received prizes, or in the case of poverty, the latter class are restricted to five per cent.

There are special regulations with regard to "programmes" which require some explanation as it throws light on the system of examinations. A programme consists of a book containing the headings of the lectures which a professor is about to give, embracing the entire contents of a text book. Each professor is obliged to draw up one of these official programmes, printing it and publishing it at his own expense. As each pupil is obliged to provide himself with one, he gains by this transaction.

They must be published a month before the commencement of the academic course, and must be drawn up, as the regulation states, for the purposes of education and of examination. The latter are, I am informed, conducted as follows:—The candidates present themselves in succession with their programme or list of questions from which they have been studying the subject, and are examined orally on three of the headings contained in it, these being drawn by lot, a number of balls with corresponding numbers attached to them being placed in a bag, and the candidate drawing out three, on which he refers to the corresponding numbers in his book of questions. It is, therefore, entirely a question of memory, as the pupil knows beforehand that he will be examined on three out of a certain number of questions contained in his programme.

The object of the changes introduced by the new decree are, therefore, to obtain a higher standard of education in the secondary schools or institutes by means of a somewhat more advanced system of studies, and to substitute a course of six years for one of five years which has hitherto been required for obtaining the degree of "bachiller."

As only notice of a fortnight was given, a considerable amount of inconvenience has been caused to those who had already commenced under the previous system.

A further decree has been issued enabling those who entered on their course of Secondary Education before the issue of the decree of September 16, to take their degree of bachiller in five years.

SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

Replies received from Herr Otto Salomon, Nääs, Sweden.

In formulating the answers to be found below, it has been assumed that the term "secondary schools" includes all boys' public schools (allmänna läroverk för gossar) and private schools too, which are privileged by the State to hold the matriculation examination.

1. In the spring term 1894 the number of "boys' public schools" supported by the State was 79 Of these, 36 were what is termed "higher" or "complete," that is to say, consisted of divisions equivalent to a nine years' course; 22 were schools with five classes, *i.e.*, contained divisions equivalent to a five years' course (from the beginning); 17 had only three classes, or covered the first three years' course, three had two classes only, and one but one. Of private schools with the privilege of admitting to the University Matriculation Examination there were six, including two for girls and one for both sexes.

2. At the State public schools the instruction is free of charge. The teachers derive their salary from the State. The pupils pay, it is true, school fees, but these are of small amount and go to meet the expenses attached to lighting and heating the school premises, &c.; to some extent also they are devoted to school building funds.

The school fees are as follows:—

a. *Entrance fee* (10 Kronor*) paid by every pupil on entrance into the school.

b. *Term fee*, paid every term, *i.e.*, twice a year. The amount differs a trifle in different places, but may be averaged at 15 Kronor* or 30 Kronor* for the whole year.

Boys in straitened circumstances are relieved from the greater part of the burden of the term's fees.

The expenses of the school premises are borne in the main by the community at large (parish, town, &c.).

The national budget estimates for 1894 included an item for public schools amounting to 3,358,129 Kronor.

The number of pupils at 75 State public schools amounted to, spring term 1894, 14,564.

3. (*a.*) Parliament (1894) agreed to petition the government requesting "such an alteration in the requirements from those wishing to enter the "lowest class as shall enable those to fulfil them who have passed the "lowest class in a recognised elementary school class A." No decree in this direction has as yet been issued.

4. If I understand the term "technical education" rightly, no such instruction as such, has been given at our "secondary schools"; the certificate of the matriculation examination obtained at these schools, however, has facilitated the entrance of pupils at various institutions, that afford technical education, such as technical and agricultural colleges, &c.

5. To obtain a post as teacher at a State public school, it is necessary

(1.) To pass certain university examinations or tests;

(2.) To go through a year's course of practical training at one of the schools.

Teachers are divided into two classes: *lektors*, who teach in the more advanced forms, and *adjunkts* (*colleagues* (Kolleger) at incomplete schools); the latter instruct in the lower forms.

For the post of *lektor*, a man must have passed the "licentiate in philosophy" examination, and have written and publicly defended some scientific dissertation.

For the post of *adjunct*, the requirements are the examination for the "licentiate in philosophy" degree, or at all events that for candidate in philosophy.

To become a "candidate of philosophy," the aspirant must be examined in five different subjects at least. These subjects may be chosen quite freely among the branches of knowledge that belongs to both sections of the department of philosophy. He must give proof of complete mastery of one of these subjects, or, if he so prefer, of excellent attainments in two.

If a "candidate of philosophy" wishes to pass the examination for the rank of licentiate, he must be examined in at least *two* branches of knowledge, quite freely chosen from the curriculum of the department, and he must give evidence that he has acquired a deeper and scientific knowledge of them. A student is, however, not required to take the examination as candidate of philosophy before the licentiate, but may proceed immediately to the latter degree, though, in this case, he has to give evidence of his scientific study of at least *three* sciences or branches of knowledge.

A licentiate of philosophy wishing to become a doctor of philosophy, in lieu of further examination has to publish a scientific treatise based on his own independent researches, and to defend this treatise publicly. If

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		£	s.	d.
*90 Kronor	=	5	0	0
10 "	=	0	11	1½
15 "	=	0	16	8
30 "	=	1	13	4
3,358,129 "	=	186,562	14	5½

the thesis and the defence of it are considered to be satisfactory, the licentiate is admitted to the degree of doctor of philosophy.

Each of the two university examinations I have been treating of may be considered to demand, as a rule, three or four years of study in preparation.

Note.—To obtain a position entailing the teaching of religion, it is possible to substitute for the above examinations certain others.

With regard to the year of practical training, it is decreed that he who has passed the examinations qualifying for the post of teacher at a State school possesses the right of going through such a course. Moreover, a "candidate in philosophy" is entitled to enter on such a course, supposing the examinations he has passed already only qualify him to obtain a teachers' position at a State school provided he supplements them with certain others. It is decreed further that any one applying for permission to enter upon such a course shall in his application specify three subjects in which he is prepared to submit himself for examination as a teacher; that the year of probation shall consist of two consecutive terms, and shall comprise two parallel courses of training, the one practical the other theoretical; also that the practical course shall include both attendance during lessons in the different forms of the school, and the imparting of instruction, in part by way of practice, in part by way of test.

6. I think the statement true as regards Sweden. The causes of this lamentable state of things are presumably of very varied character. I should especially desire to call the attention to one among them, viz., that our public schools are for the most part, and in some instances perhaps exclusively, exercising the functions of institutions for imparting theoretical knowledge, to which end it is more their aim to communicate definite information and absolute knowledge than to bring about and foster an all-round development in their pupils.

By this means not only is the physical side of the nature neglected, his mental faculties are injured too, in as much as they are called into play by bodily exertion, and act reciprocally in conjunction with it.

The greatest fault, however, in a too one-sided purely theoretical education lies in the fact that a boy's "self reliance," possibly the most momentous factor in his development, does not get anything approaching full justice done it.

In this regard the school imposes quite different demands on its children to those of real life. Furthermore, when bodily labour is kept out of the higher educational institutions, the pupils imagine that "higher education" principally consists in an entire freedom from such labour. In engaging in such labour, they fancy they are degrading themselves. and sinking to a lower social grade, thereby injuring not merely themselves, but the so-called education they have enjoyed as well.

This evil state of affairs, so widespread as to be a cause of peril not only to individuals but also to society at large, cannot be remedied, it is my firm belief, merely by calling attention, from a more or less sincere conviction, to the "absolute necessity of bodily labour," to the "honour accruing to it, to the blessing attending it" and more in the same style. Such verbose sermonettes are but theory writ large. What we want is for the educational institution to show *by action* that it believes in it itself, and then it would naturally encourage its pupils by every possible means to engage in real bodily labour, and it would arrange in the school itself facilities for the carrying on of such labour. I do not here refer to labour of such a character and nature as would lead exclusively or even principally to the construction of such instruments and apparatus as are of immediate utility in the theoretical branches of the pupils' work; nor do I mean the execution of what may be termed fine art work, such as wood carving and modelling. A halo of virtuosity will always hover around such occupations, and therefore, though for other reasons perhaps excellent and desirable, they can never instil a pleasure in and an esteem for bodily labour, which are primarily what we seek.

7. The laws relative to schools now in force date from the year 1872. No material change in the matters under consideration was introduced at that time. The year of probation was instituted first 1865, but the present conditions were introduced in 1875.

8. No.

I am, &c.,
(Signed) OTTO SALOMON.

Nääs Flaak Station, Sweden,
October 13, 1894.

REPLIES received from Professor J. MOURLY VOLD, Professor of Philosophy at the University of Christiania.

1. The Secondary Schools in Norway are partly public schools, or schools supported by the State, partly municipal schools, and partly private schools. In so far as the municipal schools are in receipt of a Government grant—which is the case with the greater number—they are under the supervision of the Chief Direction of the Educational Department, *i.e.*, the Royal Church and Education Department, which, on the basis of nomination by the municipal authorities, appoints all their teachers.

Municipal and private schools can also obtain "examination's right," *i.e.*, the right to hold examinations with the same result as the public schools, in so far as, and as long as their operations are deemed satisfactory by the Chief Direction. Departure from the system of teaching and other arrangements fixed by law and regulation for the public schools, may in such a case take place, but only with the approval of the Chief Direction, and, for the most part, affects only less essential points.

During the school-year 1890–91, the secondary schools (under which head are included such private schools as hold the above-mentioned "examination's right") were attended by—

8,989 boys.
5,193 girls.

Total 14,182 scholars.

Of these the—

(1.) Public and municipal schools were attended by—	(2.) Private schools with examination's right by—
6,444 boys	2,545 boys
1,571 girls	3,622 girls
8,015 scholars.	6,167 scholars.

Total 14,182 scholars.

Of all the pupils who attended the secondary schools, almost 57 per cent. attended Government or municipal schools, and rather more than 43 per cent. private schools.

It will be seen that the preponderant number of girls attended the private schools; for whereas, of the grand total of those who attended secondary schools, the boys made up more than 63 per cent., the girls rather less than 37 per cent., in the public and municipal schools, the boys made up rather more than 80 per cent., the girls scarcely 20 per cent., while in the private schools the boys amounted to a little over 41 per cent., the girls to rather less than 59 per cent.

The reason why the private schools as compared with the Government and municipal schools exhibited almost treble the percentage of female scholars, may principally be found in the circumstance that, until lately the higher (secondary) public and municipal schools—excepting only

some few municipal girls' schools—were only accessible to boys, while the higher education of girls was left to the care of private initiative. Since 1883, female scholars have begun to gain a limited access to the higher public and municipal boys' schools, a privilege which has subsequently been extended and employed in a constantly widening circle, so that, at the present time, a great number of schools, chiefly municipal schools, are, with a few concessions in the plan of teaching and other arrangements, actually intended for the common education of the sexes (co-education). Unmixed girls' schools for higher education are still not supported by the State, and only very rarely by the corporation, but exist, especially in the larger towns, in no small numbers as private schools. In the smaller towns, co-education seems certainly to be gaining ground; in the larger towns, it is still only found to a small extent.

The number of non-private secondary schools in the above-named year was 53, of which 17 were State schools and 36 municipal schools.

The number of private secondary schools was 40, of which 12 were boys' schools, 18 girls' schools, and 10 schools for both boys and girls.

2. (*a.*)—In the above-mentioned school year, the school fees in the Government and higher municipal schools amounted to over 42 per cent. of the receipts (expenses), or, specified, in the Government schools to rather more than 33 per cent., in the municipal schools to about 54 per cent.

This is shown by the following extracts from the accounts of receipts :—

——	In State Schools.	In Municipal Schools.	Total.
	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.
(1.) Government and Corporation Grant.	388,474	223,724	612,198
(2.) Interest on capital given and other similar sources of income (gifts from savings banks, &c.).	127,558	62,679	190,237
(3.) School fees - - -	255,875	332,725	588,600
Total - - - -	771,907	619,128	1,391,035

(*b.*) The proportion of the school fees to the entire receipts in the State and municipal schools is not determined on any fixed principle, but by judicious decision subject to time and place. It is now proposed by the Commission that this be altered so that the State grant shall be reckoned according to the number of scholars, and shall be revised, say, every fifth year (until further arrangements are made, it is proposed to fix the annual Government grant at 27 kroner (= 1*l.* 10*s.*) per scholar). *See* "Forslag "til en forandret Ordning af den höiere Almenskole," Kristiania, 1894, pp. 233, *et seq.*

3. In order to answer these and the following questions, it will be best to give an abstract of the Bill brought forward by the above Commission.

(*a.* and *b.*) It is proposed by the Commission that all secondary schools which are supported by State and corporation grants shall be constructed on the principle of a five years' course in one of the "Folke" schools (parish schools) of the town (age 7–6 years to 12–11). (The "Folke" school in towns has, according to the law of 1889, a seven years' course, divided into three periods, these periods being respectively three, two, and two years.) When those scholars who wish for a higher education have passed through the first and second divisions (3–2 years) of the "Folke" school, they are referred to a four years' school—"Middel" school—which concludes with an examination; the local boards are allowed some freedom in the choice of subjects and their extent, though in such a way that the choice must be sanctioned by the

Chief Direction (Church and Education Department). The "Middel" school, which is intended to give its scholars (of both sexes) a complete education to fit them for civil life (such an education can be completed at an age of 15 or 16 years) not only lays the foundation for several practical schools, *e.g.*, commercial and technical schools, telegraphist schools, the naval school, but also for the higher secondary schools, the "Gymnasia." In order to gain admittance to a gymnasium, the candidate must have passed the final "Middel" school examination. In the case of the candidate having been through a "Middel" school where the corporation, using the above-mentioned right, has considerably restricted the examination requirements, he must, in addition to the "Middel" school examination, pass an additional examination for the gymnasium, either before becoming a scholar of this school, or in the first year of his gymnasial course.

The gymnasium numbers three years' classes. The first of these classes is, however, so arranged, that it may also be usefully attended by those who merely aim at extending the knowledge acquired by them in the "Middel" school. Thus, the first class in the gymnasium gives a comparatively complete course of instruction.

(*c.*) After having gone through the three years' gymnasium course, the pupil may, by an "examen artium," obtain admission to the university as a student. This examination is held every summer in those schools (public and municipal as well as private) which have the right to hold it; and gentlemen appointed by the Education Department act as censors. A commission appointed by Government sets the examination papers—the same for all schools—and judges the answers. (Prizes are not given in the schools, neither at their annual nor at their chief examinations ["Middel" school examination and examen artium]).

(*d.*) Entirely or partially free education is granted by Government to poor and deserving scholars, amounting, at the present time, to not more than 10 per cent. of the net amount of the school fees. The Commission proposes that these free places be set at 20 per cent. of the school fees (in the "Middel" school and the gymnasium). In addition to this, a certain amount of money has been bequeathed to the public and municipal schools, for the purpose of helping poor scholars. I may add that the school fees, particularly in the non-private schools, are rather small.

In the private schools the school committee generally distributes not a few free places.

4. Wood Slöid, *i.e.*, instruction in various kinds of work in which the plane, knife, and saw are used, according to the method so generally known, of the Slöid Training College at Naäs in Sweden, has for some time past been an optional subject in some of our secondary schools. It is now intended to make it compulsory for all "Middel" schools, as it has already been made for the "Folke" schools of the towns by the law of 1889. The Commission will give a much larger place than before to drawing in the secondary schools.

5. The school arrangement of 1869 brought with it considerable alterations in the theoretical training of teachers, but determined nothing concerning their practical training. There are now great requirements on this point, and the already referred to Bill of the Schools Commission lays special stress on the necessity of soon doing something in this direction. The same idea has now found a hearing in the Storthing (Parliament). A preliminary step was taken in 1887, when Government sent two school-men, H. Jan Johansen and H. P. Voss, abroad to report on what is done there for the advance of the practical pedagogic training of teachers for secondary schools. The reports of these gentlemen are now before us, one of them in Norwegian and German, under the title "Die pädagogische Vorbildung zum höheren Lehramt in Preuszen und "Sachsen. Ein Reisebericht von P. Voss. Halle a/S. Buchhandlung "des Waisenhauses, 1889." Hr. Johansen's report is to be found in the "Norske Universitets og Skoleannaler," 1888, pp. 164–224. "Ind-"beretning om en i 1887 foretagen Stipendiereise for at undersöge Laerer "Uddannelsen i enkelte fremmede Lande."

6. The tendency referred to has to some extent also been apparent here. In some cases parents, who, with a little learning from their school-days, were put to manual labour, and found it hard, have wished to obtain for their children what, in their opinion, was a better future—lighter and more remunerative work and a better social position—by directing them to some calling for which chiefly mental labour was required. There may presumably, therefore, be an individual here and there throughout the country who has attended a secondary school for a longer or shorter period, and perhaps the University, more or less unsuccessfully, and has then experienced a difficulty in finding a means of subsistence by mental labour; and as he cannot condescend to support himself by manual labour, such a man leads a by no means satisfactory existence.

On the other hand, we have not a few instances of lads from our upper social classes, who have gone through the "Middel" school, and who, with pleasure and zeal, have chosen a career which, in former times, would have been considered far too humble for them. It is, perhaps, also worthy of remark, that there are year by year not a few among those who have gone through the "Middel" school, who emigrate, especially to America, to make an independent position for themselves there. Some of these, too, have testified that the foundation laid in the "Middel" school has been useful to them in the practical work of life. Of others who have passed from the "Middel" school to technical schools, no inconsiderable percentage, after a complete technical course of study, seek employment in technical positions abroad.

It may be presumed that the above regrettable tendency to despise manual labour may be counteracted by the following circumstances.

(*a.*) The "Middel" school (*see* 3 *a* and *b*), which, according to the proposition of the Commission, it is intended to retain, forms a complete course concluded by an examination; the scholar is thus, at the age of about 16, placed in a position where he must choose between the various, chiefly practical, callings to which this examination gives access. We have already had instances of the beneficial effects of this arrangement.

(*b.*) All children, according to the proposed arrangement, shall attend a mixed school until their 12th (11th) year (*see* 3 *a* and *b*). All idea of difference in social standing is hereby counteracted from childhood.

(*c.*) In the schools, also the secondary schools, more importance than before will be attached to practical subjects, gymnastics, slöid, drawing and arithmetic; and efforts will be made in these, as in other subjects, to aim at a practical life.

(*d.*) Access to the practical supplementary schools has been, and is still made easy, often free. The technical night schools might perhaps be specially mentioned, to which the State and the Corporation give very liberal grants.

Concerning this 6th point, I may generally direct attention to the proposition of the Commission, p. 205.

7. The present arrangement of secondary schools was determined by a law of 1869. One of the most important institutions which this law introduced was the "Middel" school (*cf.* 3 *a* and *b*). Where as formerly the "Cathedral" school, with its chiefly classical character, kept its pupils for 7 or 8 years—generally from the age of 10 to that of 17 or 18—the secondary school, by this law, was divided into two divisions. In the first "Middel" school—which, while it had principally the character of a complete civil school, intended to fit its scholars for a practical life, was also a preparatory school for all higher education, both generally and specially scientific—the scholar remained for six years, generally from his 9th to his 15th year; the second division, the "Gymnasium," embraced a period of three years, and possessed a higher theoretical character. The "Middel" school, with its comparatively complete civil education, and its examination at the age of 15, is without doubt a good institution. Formerly there were not a few scholars who left the lengthy, theoretically planned "Cathedral" school before they had gone through all its classes, or at any rate without going to the university, and in consequence had a very defective preparation for a practical life. Before 1869, of schools

with a "Middel" school tendency, there were only the unsystematically-planned, so-called "Borger" schools, without any organic connection with other children's schools, and without any public final examination, and these schools were found only in a few towns, and had generally only in their lower classes a large number of scholars. The "Middel" schools, on the other hand, were soon increased in number; they were introduced into the towns, and also into several rural districts. As before mentioned, it is intended to retain the "Middel" school and its examination, only remodelling it somewhat.

Another important change introduced by the law of 1869 was, that besides the mainly classical line which there had exclusively been before that time, a modern line was introduced by which some subjects which had fallen into the background in the other line—mathematics, natural science and modern languages, especially German and English—were made principal subjects. The separation between the two lines began in the middle of the "Middel" school course, as the scholar then had the choice between Latin and English, the latter, however, being more general, and in many schools without its Latin parallel. The separation was completely effected in the "Gymnasium," and resulted in two different "Gymnasia," the Latin gymnasium and the Modern gymnasium, each with its Examen artium, one classical, the other modern.

This division into two lines the Commission proposes to retain, though with considerable alterations, as a lower standard of education in Latin is required, and Greek is changed from a compulsory to an optional subject in the Latin Gymnasium.

The law of 1869 occasioned considerable alterations in the teachers' examination, which was divided into four different classes with different groups of subjects.

8. The number of private schools has somewhat increased during the last 25 years, though not much in comparison to the growth of the population. In Kristiania and two or three of the other large towns, the number of private schools has risen, chiefly because there has been both an absolutely and a relatively increasing number of candidates for the "Middel" school examination, and also to some extent for the "examen artium," which the public schools could scarcely accommodate. On the other hand, some private schools have been closed on account of the increased exertions of the State and the Corporation on behalf of Secondary Education, or on account of the competition with other private schools.

SWITZERLAND.

REPLIES received from the SECRETARY of the EDUCATION DEPARTMENT of the CANTON of ZÜRICH.

(*Translation.*)

1. Secondary Education is supported by the secondary school districts, which are obliged to furnish the financial supplies in the first place from their own resources. But to this expenditure the State adds contributions of considerable amount. (*See* Note 1.)

2. Instruction is given gratuitously, and in a large number of districts school children cost their parents nothing except for books. Nearly half of the total number of districts, however, provide books and other materials free of charge. Where this custom prevails the local school funds are supplemented by the central authority. (*See* Note 2.)

3. Bursaries are paid by the central and local authorities to poor and clever scholars on the recommendation of the school inspector. (*See* Note 3.)

4. The secondary schools of Zürich do not provide special professional training, as this is undertaken by the trade and technical schools.

5. Secondary teachers have to go through the following course of training in order to qualify:—They must receive four years' instruction in a training school (*Seminar*), to which only those persons are admitted who have completed their fifteenth year and have passed the third class of the ordinary secondary school. They then obtain their certificate as elementary school teachers and proceed to spend four terms at a high school, and at the end of that time they must give proof of their capability as teachers.

6. We often meet with persons in secondary schools who have no business there and who are not fitted to become practical workmen in their after lives. They have either lost the taste for manual labour or think themselves above it on account of the higher education they have received.

We can suggest no means of keeping such persons out of secondary schools except the better education of both pupils and parents.

Much is hoped in certain circles from the introduction of manual instruction, and it is believed that when manual labour is again held in esteem the better class of workmen will return to its ranks. We, however, have little hope of this remedy, for we have at present no lack of artizan labour; indeed the labour market is overcrowded in almost every branch of trade.

7. Few important changes have taken place in the system of Secondary Education in Zürich since 1865. The following regulations are, however, worthy of mention:—The period to be passed (by intending secondary teachers) at a high school has been extended from two to three, and finally to four terms, the standard required of candidates has been raised, but on the other hand their remuneration has been increased, and free education has become law during this period.

8. No increase in the number of private schools has recently taken place.

(Signed) D. A. Hutier,
Secretary of Education Department.

Note 1.—Order of February 25, 1892, concerning State subsidies to secondary schools.

The chief purposes for which State aid is granted to secondary schools by the above Order are as follows:—

(1.) *Salaries of Teachers.*—The amount of the State contribution towards the salaries of teachers is determined by the amounts raised for that purpose by the various school districts, and varies from 100 francs to 590 francs per annum.

If a district wishes to raise the salary of a teacher beyond the legal minimum the State contributes an amount not exceeding 3,000 francs.

(2.) *Increment for Length of Service.*—Teachers who have been 10 years in the service of the State receive an addition of 100 francs to their salary, at the end of 15 years they receive an addition of 200 francs, at the end of 20 years 300 francs, and after 20 years' service an addition of 400 francs per annum.

(3.) *School Buildings.*—State aid is given for the erection and maintenance (*Hauptreparaturen*) of school buildings and towards the provision of teachers' houses, gymnasiums, and school baths. No aid is, however, given to merely luxurious expenditure, such as architectural decoration or the extension of the school grounds for ornamental purposes.

4.) *Free Books, &c.*—Schools which provide either the whole or part of the necessary books and stationery free may claim a State subsidy varying from 10 to 75 per cent. on the school rate of the district.

(5.) *Bursaries.*—The State provides bursaries of 30 francs for scholars in the first and second classes of secondary schools, and of 30 francs for scholars in the third class. The candidates for

bursaries must be recommended by the school authorities as diligent and capable and in poor circumstances, and must undertake to remain at school until the end of the whole year.

(6.) *Teaching of Languages.*—Any schools which desire to teach foreign or dead languages other than French (which is compulsory) may claim a State grant of from 30 to 50 francs a week according to the number of pupils taught.

(7.) *Continuation Schools.*—Schools for young persons over 15 years of age may claim a State grant of from 30 to 50 francs a week provided their curriculum is approved by the Councillor of Education, and their accounts are audited by some competent authority.

NOTE 2.—Glarus was the first of the Swiss Cantons to provide children in secondary schools with free books and stationery. The latest amendment of the law on free education in Glarus was passed in 1885, in 1887 Zürich followed the example thus afforded it and passed a law making the provision of books and stationery the charge of the State and the school districts. The several districts were allowed to take advantage of the law or not as they liked, with the result that at the beginning of 1893 99 districts provided both books and stationery free, and six districts gave free stationery. These 105 districts included 3,470 children or 54·25 per cent. of all the children at secondary schools. In little more than a year a considerable increase took place in these numbers. The official school journal (*Amtliches Schulblatt*) of Zürich states that in May 1894, 44 out of the 90, or 40 per cent. of the secondary school circuits (*Kreisen*) of the canton provided school materials gratis. These districts embraced 4,889 children or 72 per cent. of all the children in attendance at secondary schools in the Canton. Various systems have been adopted by the different school districts; some have given the necessary books to their pupils to keep as their own private property, others simply lend them for a year at a time, they are then collected for the necessary repairs and redistributed. Books which remain in the possession of the same pupil for three years are either finally given to him or sold to him for a small sum. Where this loan system has been adopted the school authorities are satisfied both with the financial and educational results. (*Amtliches Schulblätter*, 1887, No. 1; 1893, No. 2, and 1894, No. 8.)

NOTE 3.—The total number of children in secondary schools in the Canton of Zurich in 1893–4 was 6,931. Of these 2,071, or nearly 30 per cent., were candidates for bursaries, and bursaries were given to 1,887 children, or 27 per cent. of the total number.

Enquiries into the circumstances of these children showed, however, that many of them were the children of comparatively well-to-do parents, and the school authorities were, therefore, advised not to recommend their scholars for bursaries simply because they were diligent and promising, though not in need of aid, or simply because they were poor, though they had not the requisite ability. (*Amtliches Schulblätter*, 1893, Nos. 10 and 11).

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